THE UK ARMY OFFICERS' EXPERIENCE WITH THE ROCC MODEL AND ITS
IMPLICATIONS FOR CAPTAINS EDUCATION IN THE US ARMY

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The School of Advanced Leadership and Tactics (SALT) is developing the new Captains level educational model, known as the Mid-Grade Learning Continuum for 2015 (MLC 2015), based on TRADOC's Army Learning Concept for 2015 (ALC 2015). Since 2004, the UK Army has utilized an education model for its Captains known as the Review of Officer Career Courses (ROCC). The major similarities between ROCC and MLC 2015 are: (1) distributed or distance learning, (2) modular design, and (3) educational responsibilities for the operational chain of command. The research question of this thesis is: ̶Based on the UK Army's experience with Captains education since 2004, what lessons learned will assist SALT in its development and implementation of TRADOC's new educational model for US Army Captains?" This study uses a unique survey instrument to determine UK Officers' perceptions of the ROCC model based on their experiences. This unique survey instrument was administered to 175 UK Majors who experienced Captains education within the ROCC model. This study analyzed and summarized the participants' perceptions of the ROCC model into five major findings and then made nine recommendations for Branch Commandants, SALT, CAC, and TRADOC to incorporate in the development and implementation of MLC 2015.

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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the student author and do not
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statement.)

ABSTRACT

THE UK ARMY OFFICERS' EXPERIENCE WITH THE ROCC MODEL AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR CAPTAINS EDUCATION IN THE US ARMY, by Major Peter M. Sittenauer, 115 pages.

The School of Advanced Leadership and Tactics (SALT) is developing the new Captains level educational model, known as the Mid-Grade Learning Continuum for 2015 (MLC 2015), based on TRADOC's Army Learning Concept for 2015 (ALC 2015). Since 2004, the UK Army has utilized an education model for its Captains known as the Review of Officer Career Courses (ROCC). The major similarities between ROCC and MLC 2015 are: (1) distributed or distance learning, (2) modular design, and (3) educational responsibilities for the operational chain of command. The research question of this thesis is: ―Based on the UK Army's experience with Captains education since 2004, what lessons learned will assist SALT in its development and implementation of TRADOC's new educational model for US Army Captains?" This study uses a unique survey instrument to determine UK Officers' perceptions of the ROCC model based on their experiences. This unique survey instrument was administered to 175 UK Majors who experienced Captains education within the ROCC model. This study analyzed and summarized the participants' perceptions of the ROCC model into five major findings and then made nine recommendations for Branch Commandants, SALT, CAC, and TRADOC to incorporate in the development and implementation of MLC 2015.

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ACRONYMS

ACT   Army Career Tracker

ALC 2015   Army Learning Concept 2015

ALA   Army Learning Assessment

ATLDP   Army Training and Leader Development Panel

BR TDY   Branch Course (Temporary Duty)

CAC   Combined Arms Center

CCC   Captains Career Course

CGSC   Command and General Staff College

DE   Direct Entry

DL   Distance Learning (UK) or Distributed Learning (US). The US Army often
                uses the acronym dL (with a little ―d‖) for Distributed Learning, while the
                UK Army uses the acronym DL (with a capital ―D‖) for Distance
                Learning. Since the definitions between the two terms are similar, this
                thesis uses only ―DL‖ for both terms to avoid confusion.

DLPO   Distance Learning Programme Office

DTR   Defence Training Review

ET   Employment Training

ICSC(L)   Intermediate Command and Staff Course (Land)

ILE   Intermediate Level Education

IT   Information Technology

JOLP   Junior Officer Leadership Programme

JOTAC   Junior Officers Tactics Course

JOTES   Junior Officers' Training and Education Scheme

LE   Late Entry

LL   Lifelong Learning

MA	Military Analysis
MI	Modular Instruction
MK	Military Knowledge
MLC 2015	Mid Grade Learning Continuum 2015
MOD	Ministry of Defence
OCD	Officer Career Development
OCDH	Officer Career Development Handbook
OSD	Officer Self Development
PME	Professional Military Education
QAO	Quality Assurance Office
ROCC	Review of Officer Career Courses
TDE	Temporary Duty for Education
TDY	Temporary Duty
TRADOC	Training and Doctrine Command
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

It always amazes me how the Army tries to fix what isn't broken. The CCC is the last chance for a company grade officer to truly master his craft and become the tactical expert that is required of a direct level leader. As you know, you learn more from your peers and the other foreign officers in a small group than you could ever learn from distant learning.[1]

— US Army Major's Blog post
"Captains' Career Course Proposed Concept"

Background

In March 2010, LTG Robert L. Caslen, Jr, Combined Arms Center (CAC)

Commander, initiated a blog that introduced a new educational model for Captains and

solicited feedback on US Army Captains education. The blog received numerous

responses with negative attitudes toward the new model, such as: "The Army should

avoid a concept of Distance Learning for the Captains Career Course . . . if our senior

leaders say we are important . . . why are senior leaders willing to make that investment

for Majors but not Captains . . . what is it precisely we are trying to solve?"[2] The model

proposed by the blog described a new Captains education that reduces resident

instruction, increases distance learning, and establishes electives that are determined by

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[1]US Army Major, comment on US Army, Combined Arms Center Commander's Blog, "Captains' Career Course Proposed Concept (CCC Proposed Concept)," entry posted 19 March 2010, http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q= cache:zKg688iX-C4J:usacac.army.mil/blog/blogs/frontier6/archive/2010/03/15/captain- career-course-proposed-concept.aspx+frontier+6+captain's+career+course&cd= 1&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=us&source=www.google.com (accessed 6 May 2011).

[2]CCC Proposed Concept Blog, entry posted 16 March 2010. Note: selected comments were from three different blog posts on the same day.

each Captain's assignment, interests, and chain of command.[3] This concept is a shift from the active Army's current and historical models of Captains education.[4]

By October 2010, the blog had 228 posts. As illustrated by the selected comments and epigraph, approximately 75 percent of the posts opposed the blog's proposed model.[5] There were four common reasons for opposition: (1) a lack of confidence in distributed learning (DL);[6] (2) a belief that small group, peer to peer learning is superior to other methods of instruction; (3) a lack of a clearly defined problem statement to initiate change; and (4) a lack of confidence in operational units' ability and willingness to support Captains education. Why were the blog posts overwhelming unsupportive of change in Captains education? Considering the proposed changes are not replicated in the active Army's Professional Military Education (PME) for officers, is it possible that opposition to the proposed model is simply an organization's natural resistance to change? Perhaps the overwhelming resistance is a collective fear that the proposed model is inferior to the current education model. Regardless of the possible reasons of

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[3]Robert L. Caslen, Jr., "Captains' Career Course Proposed Concept," Blog initiated, 15 March 2010, http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:zKg688iX-C4J:usacac.army.mil/blog/blogs/frontier6/archive/2010/03/15/captain-career-course-proposed-concept.aspx+frontier+6+captain's+career+course&cd=1&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=us&source=www.google.com (accessed 6 May 2010).

[4]As discussed in chapter 2, TRADOC's *Army Learning Concept 2015* identifies a new model for Captain's education which is later described by LTG Caslen in his blog on 22 November 2010.

[5]The statistical figure, "75 percent," is based on the author's analysis of blog responses.

[6]The US Army often uses the acronym dL (with a little "d") for Distributed Learning, while the UK Army uses the acronym DL (with a capital "D") for Distance Learning. Since the definitions between the two terms are similar, this thesis uses only "DL" for both terms to avoid confusion.

resistance, the new model for Captains education is currently under development and not yet released. Therefore, until a new model is approved and released, most officers and educators do not understand exactly what they are saying ―no" to when they offer their views.

The CAC Commander's blog coincided with the development of the US Army Training and Doctrine Command's (TRADOC) recently published Army Learning Concept for 2015 (ALC 2015). According to the document, ―The US Army Learning Concept for 2015, is the Army's visualization of how the Army will train and educate Soldiers and leaders in individual knowledge, skills, attributes, and abilities to execute full-spectrum operations in an era of persistent conflict."[7] Among other changes to PME, ALC 2015 introduces a new educational model for US Army Captains. This new educational model introduces modular courses, distributed or distance learning (DL), and requires operational units to increase their involvement in their Captains' educational development.[8] CAC's newest school, the School for Advanced Leadership and Tactics (SALT), is developing the plans to implement this new educational model for Captains based on the concepts established in the ALC 2015.

Since 2004, the UK Army has utilized an education model for its Captains that is similar to the model proposed by TRADOC's ALC 2015. The UK Army's education system for officers is guided by the Officer Career Development (OCD) Programme. As stated in its handbook, ―OCD Programme is . . . progressive and provides continuous

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[7]Headquarters, US Army Training and Doctrine Command. TRADOC Pam 525-8-2, *The US Army Learning Concept for 2015(ALC 2015)* (Fort Monroe, VA: Government Printing Office, 20 January 2011), 1.

[8]Ibid., 18-21, 26, 54.

development. It encourages greater personal ownership by officers of their career and much of the allied education and training."[9] The major similarities between these two models include: (1) modular delivery, (2) DL, and (3) chain of command involvement.

<u>Purpose and Thesis</u>

SALT is developing a new educational model for US Army Captains based on TRADOC's Army Learning Concept for 2015. However, SALT does not have a US Army active duty model to refer to while developing and implementing the new model. Despite the UK Army's use of a similar Captains education model for the past seven years, there is no formal relationship or process to identify and provide UK lessons learned to SALT that could assist in development of this new educational model.

In light of this problem, the research question of this thesis is: Based on the UK Army's experience with Captains education since 2004, what lessons learned will assist SALT in its development and implementation of TRADOC's new educational model for US Army Captains? As argued in chapters 4 and 5, the research discovered five major lessons learned. Before implementing a new Captains education model, the US Army should consider the lessons the UK Army learned from its ROCC model experience, especially in the areas of modularity, DL, and chain of command involvement. In light of the five major findings, there are nine recommendations that the US Army should consider when implementing a new model for Captains education.

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[9]United Kingdom Army, Army Code 64257, *Officer Career Development Handbook (OCDH),* December 2008, Issue 3.1, 1-1, http://library/baebb/pages/8_G1G4/ OCDH.htm (accessed 5 April 2011).

<u>Scope of Research</u>

Further described in chapter 3, this study uses the survey research method to collect data in support of the research question. Recently promoted UK Majors participating in Exercise Eagle Owl are the study population based on their Captain's level educational experience. Eagle Owl is a semi-annual exercise between UK Majors from the UK's Intermediate Command and Staff Course–Land (ICSC-[L]) and US Army Majors from the US Army's Command and General Staff School's (CGSC) Intermediate Level Education (ILE) course. This exercise is held at Fort Leavenworth and lasts approximately two weeks. The questions in the survey instrument were developed to identify lessons learned in the UK educational model that can be applied to the US model presented in TRADOC's ALC 2015. These questions center on the three major similarities between the proposed US and current UK models.

<u>Organization of Thesis</u>

Chapter 2 reviews the historical and theoretical frameworks for the three Captains level educational models discussed in this thesis. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology in detail. This description includes the development of the survey instrument, the study population, the criteria used to evaluate the data collected, and statistical methods used to analyze survey responses. Chapter 4 provides the analysis of the survey data and summarizes the major findings. Based on these findings, chapter 5 provides recommendations for SALT to consider when implementing the new educational model for US Army Captains.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORY, BACKGROUND, AND CONCEPTS

> The drive to reform the Institutional Army is not simply about improving the bottom line, but also doing things better and smarter while taking advantage of the progress, technology, knowledge and experience available to us.
>
> — Honorable John McHugh
> *Secretary of the Army Top Priorities, April 2011*

This chapter provides the historical and theoretical frameworks for the three

Captains level educational models discussed in this thesis. These three educational

models are: (1) the current US Army Captains Career Course (CCC); (2) the new US

Army model known as the Mid-Grade Learning Continuum for 2015 (MLC 2015);[10] and

(3) the UK Army's Review of Officer Career Courses (ROCC) Model. In order to

provide a thorough background, this chapter has seven themes which support the research

question, the thesis, and methodology. The themes are: (1) history of the CCC; (2) history

of the Officer Career Development (OCD) Programme; (3) evolution of the ALC 2015

concept; (4) comparison of educational models; (5) review of related educational

concepts; (6) a review of literature on an organization's resistance to change, and

(7) cultural differences between UK and US Army officers.

History of the US Army Captains Career Course

The first theme of this chapter is the history of the current US model known as the

Captains Career Course (CCC). The CCC history begins shortly after World War II when

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[10]US Army School of Advanced Leadership and Tactics, *The Mid-Grade Learning Continuum for 2015 (MLC 2015) v0.3* (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Government Printing Office, 30 December 2010), ii. Note: The MLC 2015 is still in draft version and not yet approved.

the US Army established advanced courses to train and educate Captains for what would become the Cold War."[11] There are 12 important US military studies from 1946 to 2010 that report the status of US Army Captains education and provide recommendations for improvement.[12] While there were various recommendations as well as course length and curriculum changes, these studies demonstrate that Captains education largely remained as a single resident course established by each branch in the Army. There are some notable exceptions to this model, which include the Combined Arms and Services Staff School (CAS3) and Common Core curriculum mandated by Army and TRADOC regulations. But generally, from the 1940s to present, a US Army Captain would complete his or her education in a single resident course held at his or her branch proponent.

The recommendations of the first three education studies directly contributed to the basic construct of today's CCC more than the recommendations of the other nine.[13]

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[11]Dr. William H. Kautt, ―Historical Overview of PME for Captains in the US Army" (Paper Submitted to the 2010 CAC Special Commission on Captains Career Courses, Department of Military History, US Army Command and General Staff College, 30 April 2010), v.6, 1.

[12]Using their common names, these major studies and their dates are: Gerow Board, 1946; Eddy Board, 1949; Williams Board, 1958; Daily Board, 1961; Haines Board, 1966-70; Review of Army OES, 1971; Review of Education and Training for Officers (RETO), 1978; Professional Development of Officers Study (PDOS), 1985; Leader Development Study, 1987-88; Officer Professional Management System XXI Task Force (OPMS XXI), 1997; Army Training and Leader Development Panel Report (ATLDP), 2002-03; Combined Arms Center Study on CCC, 2010 (2010 CCC Study). Digital versions of nine of these reports can be found at the Combined Arms Research Library website, www.cgsc.edu/carl/gateway/officer_education.asp. A digital version of the 2010 report can be accessed at the Defense Technical Information Center in the controlled access site http://www.dtic.mil/dtic/announcements/DOAC.html.

[13]Kelly C. Jordan, ―The Yin and Yang of Junior Officer Learning: The Historical Development of the Army's Institutional Education Program for Captains," *The Land*

First, the Gerow Board in 1946 promoted a formalized and sequential officer education

system, and as a result, the Army adopted basic and advanced officer education courses.[14]

Next, the Eddy Board in 1949 and Williams Board in 1958 examined the junior officer

education courses and recommended standardizing the timing of these courses among the

various branches.[15] In addition to the recommendations in timing, these two boards

accepted and supported an officer's advanced course to prepare Captains for their duties

as senior company grade officers.[16] All twelve studies made recommendations for change

to Captains education, which generally called for improvements to content, timing, or

instructors. However, junior officer education delivery methods remained relatively

unchanged for over 60 years.

Education versus Training

Described as the ―yin and yang of the Army school system," education and

training historically competed with each other for curriculum time in Captains' schools.[17]

Warfare Papers No 49 (October 2004), http://www.dtic.mil/dtic/announcements/
DOAC.html (accessed 23 September 2010), 9.

[14]Ibid., 6.

[15]US Department of the Army, Report to the Chief of Staff of the Army, ―Board
on Educational System for Officers (Eddy Board)" (Washington, DC: Government
Printing Office, 15 June 1949), http://www.cgsc.edu/carl/gateway/ officer_education.asp
(accessed 23 September 2010),7,16; Jordan, 8-9.

[16]Jordan, 8-10; US Department of the Army, ―Report of the Department of the
Army Officer Education and Training Review Board (Williams Board)," 1958,
http://www.cgsc.edu/carl/gateway/officer_education.asp (accessed 23 September 2010),
170,

[17]Jordan, 1. According to the *OCD Handbook*, the UK Army also acknowledges
the difference and importance of both education and training. The OCD definitions for
both are similar to US Army definitions, OCDH, 2-1

LTC Kelly Jordan, an award winning military historian and former instructor at the

CGSC, described the tension between education and training in Captain's curriculum. He

defined education as instruction which ―provides the student with the tools to deal with

the unknown," and training as instruction which ―seeks to impart a mastery of the

known."[18] The Williams Board of 1958 discussed education versus training and

recommended that Captains' advanced courses improve their instructional methodology

by further developing ―the students ability to think imaginatively and to reach a logical

solution."[19]

The Norris Board of 1970 acknowledged the difference between education and

training and then further advanced the debate by prescribing a progressive ratio

throughout an officer's career. In its report, the Norris Board recommended:

> The basic course curriculum should reflect a balance of 75 percent training and 25 percent education, the advanced course curriculum should be a 50-50 mix of education and training, and the Command and General Staff College (CGSC) curriculum should be weighted so that about 80 percent of its instruction was educational and the remaining 20 percent would be considered training.[20]

In short, the Norris Board recommended a gradual increase in education and decrease in

training as an officer progressed through the US Army school system. As LTC Jordan

noted, based on the recommendations of educational studies until 1985, Captains'

institutional curriculum focused heavily on training and less on education. Based on

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[18]Jordan, 2.

[19]Williams Board, 176.

[20]Jordan, 10.

educational studies since 1985, curriculum has increasingly focused on educating

Captains versus training.[21]

Faculty Selection and Training

Faculty selection and training are sometimes overlooked in education studies, but

there are at least three studies that signify the importance of instructors. The first two

studies, The Daley Board of 1961, and the Haines Board of 1966-70, raised questions

about the quality, qualifications, and roles of instructors assigned to the Army's

schools.[22] The 2010 CCC Study emphasized that the key to a successful instructor was

not only the selection of someone who was motivated, skilled, and knowledgeable, but

also conducted or completed certification and development programs. Furthermore, the

2010 CCC Study asserted that a good instructor is more important than good course

curriculum.[23] To illustrate how instructors and curriculum affect a Captain's educational

experience, the 2010 Study developed figure 1. As depicted in the figure, both curriculum

and small group leaders (instructors) are important, and the best educational experience

occurs when you have both a good instructor and good curriculum. However, as the

figure also depicts, a good instructor with bad curriculum should result in a better

learning experience than a bad instructor with good curriculum. The implication is that

good instructors can overcome poor curriculum.

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[21]Ibid., 24.

[22]Ibid., 9-10.

[23]Headquarters, CAC, *Report of Findings and Recommendations; 2010 US Army Captains Career Course Study* (*2010 CCC Study*) (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Government Printing Office, 14 June 2010), 3.

Figure 1.   Optimal Educational Experience

Source: Headquarters, Department of the Army, Combined Arms Center, ―Report of Findings and Recommendations; 2010 US Army Captains Career Course Study (2010 CCC Study)" (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Government Printing Office, 14 June 2010).

Branch Curriculum versus Common Core

LTC Jordan claimed that the yin and yang of US Army Captains' education is education and training. However, the relationship between branch specific instruction and common core curriculum is another source of tension in Captains education. In 1949, the Eddy board believed that common core requirements overloaded branch advanced courses.[24] Likewise, the Williams Board in 1958 believed that common core curriculum interfered with branch material curriculum.[25] This board explained that school commandants were constantly under pressure to balance their branch curriculum with ever increasing common requirements.

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[24]Eddy Board, 30.

[25]Williams Board, 175.

Despite the concerns of these boards, not all studies shared the same sentiment. In 2003, the Army Training and Leader Development Panel (ATDLP) advocated greater standardization of all CCCs by ―teaching common company command skills" and other methods of standardizing.[26] CAS3 served as the Army wide common curriculum that prepared Captains staff duty, however; in 2004, the last CAS3 class graduated from Fort Leavenworth.

By 2007, TRADOC required all Captains to complete a DL based Common Core curriculum prior to CCC graduation. Due to numerous problems with the DL technology and courseware, TRADOC later replaced this DL based requirement in 2009 by 7.5 weeks of common curriculum.[27] This common curriculum was added to every branch CCC, however; no additional time was added to the overall CCC length.[28] Therefore, many branches reduced the number of hours dedicated to branch specific curriculum. Without a guarantee that common core requirements would not increase, the 2010 CCC Study found that each branch CCC was concerned with the implementation of the 2009 common core curriculum and its implications in future common core requirements. Branch Commandants believed that branch instruction, and therefore, branch core competencies were at risk.[29] Lengths of Captains' courses have long been debated, and,

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[26]US Department of the Army, *The Army Training and Leader Development Panel Report* (ATLDP); *ATLDP Officer Study Report* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2003), http://www.cgsc.edu/carl/gateway/officer_education.asp (accessed on 23 September 2010), 13.

[27]2010 CCC Study, 63.

[28]Ibid., 12.

[29]Ibid., 46.

often, courses were shorter than recommended. The difference between recommended and actual course lengths was often attributed to budgetary and manpower needs of the US Army. Shortened course lengths only compound the yin-yang tension that exists between branch and common core instruction.

Current Captains Career Course Model

As stated in Army Regulation (AR) 350-1, ―The Captains Career Course (CCC) provides captains with the tactical, technical and leader knowledge and skills needed to lead company-size units and serve on battalion and brigade staffs."[30] Figure 2 graphically shows the timing of the CCC and its relation to other active Army officer PME courses. In general, the current active Army model of officer PME consists of four main resident courses: Basic Officer Leader Course; Captains Career Course; Intermediate Level Education; and Senior Service School. Currently, all officers have the opportunity to attend the first three courses while only selected officers attend the Senior Service College.

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[30]Headquarters, Department of the Army. Army Regulation 350-1, *Army Training and Leader Development* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 18 December 2009), 70.

	2LT	1LT		CPT						MAJ							LTC				COL			
Y R S	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24

BOLC   CCC   ILE   SSC

Various general and branch specialty training
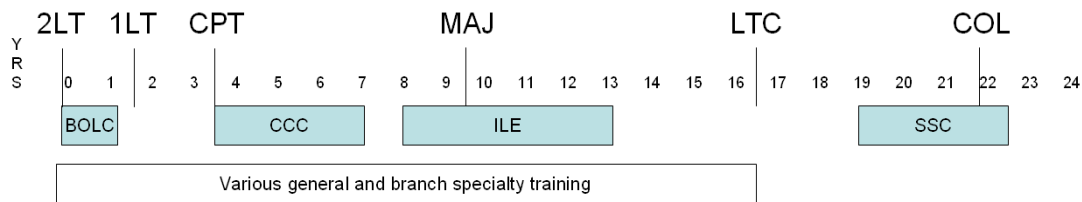
Figure 2. The Current US Army Officer PME Model
Source: Created by author, based on illustrations in the Department of the Army Pamphlet (DA PAM) 600-3, *Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Career Management* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 2010).
Note: The acronyms in this illustration are explained here: BOLC=Basic Officer Leadership Course, CCC=Captains Career Course, ILE=Intermediate Level Education, and SSC=Senior Service College.

The CCC is a 20-21 week course conducted at each branch school.[31] Students conduct a permanent change of station to their branch's installation to attend the CCC. The course curriculum consists of 7.5 weeks of CAC regulated common core, and the remainder is branch technical curriculum determined by the branch commandants. Officers have the opportunity to attend various other general skill and branch specialty training throughout their career. Typical training courses vary with an officer's branch, but just a few examples include: Air Assault School, Ranger School, Air Defense Airspace Management Course, Joint Operational Fires and Effects Course, Mortar Officer Course, and Sapper School. These schools and courses are typically attended in a Temporary Duty (TDY) status at a resident course.

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[31]There are some exceptions. For example, the US Army Field Artillery and Maneuver CCCs are 24 and 23 weeks respectively. JAG and AMEDD courses also have different lengths and design.

UK Army Officer Career Development Programme

The second theme of this chapter is the development of the UK Army's

educational model for Captains within its OCD Programme. The history of the OCD

began with the Defence Training Review (DTR) in 1999. The purpose of the DTR was to

examine all civilian and military training and education in the UK Ministry of Defence

(MOD). The document's authors designed the review to complement the Strategic

Defence Review of 1998 and the national level ―learning age" proposals.[32] According to

then Minister of Defence, Lord George Robertson, the DTR was to determine how to

make education and training more effective, cost efficient, and meet the needs of the 21st

century.[33]

Among other initiatives, the Review proposed, ―less emphasis on formal

classroom instruction and more responsibility placed on individuals for their own

education and development."[34] In addition and similar to the ALC 2015, the DTR

promoted less resident education to be replaced by an increase in DL technologies.

According to the DTR, ―E-learning offers the opportunity to increase flexibility in our

training and shorten residential training time."[35] Based on the results of the DTR and

another MOD Review in 2002 titled, ―Review of Officer Career Courses" (ROCC), the

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[32]United Kingdom Ministry of Defence, ―Defence Training Review Report, 2001"
UK Online Archives, last updated November 2001, http://webarchive.national
archives.gov.uk/tna/+/http://www.mod.uk/issues/training/contents.htm (accessed 22 June
2010).

[33]Ibid., forward.

[34]Ibid., para 11.

[35]Ibid., para 18.

UK MOD developed a new strategy to educate its officers by incorporating many of the recommendations for blended learning and decreasing resident instruction.[36]

To understand the OCD Programme, it is important to realize OCD does not only govern officer education. The Programme's concept contains three interrelated aspects of professionally developing officers which "maximise[s] officers' effectiveness by rewarding, managing and improving potential to meet the needs of the Army"[37] These three aspects are seen in figure 3. The first two aspects, Career Structure and Career Management, are related to service commitment and the management of officers' assignments, education attendance, counseling, and evaluations. The third aspect of OCD is education and training. The ROCC study, completed in 2002, established the education and training model that the OCD uses today. This model is commonly referred to as the "ROCC model" or simply "ROCC."[38]

[36]Martin Mackain-Bremner and Bernard Scott, "E-Learning Projects at the Defence Academy, Shrivenham." *Military Simulation and Training Magazine No. 1* (2006), http://mst.texterity.com/mst/2006-1/#pg24 (accessed 22 June 2010), 24.

[37]United Kingdom Army, Army Code 64257, *Officer Career Development Handbook (OCDH)*, December 2008, Issue 3.1, http://library/baebb/pages/8_G1G4/OCDH.htm (accessed 5 April 2011), 1-1.

[38]Mackain-Bremner et al., 24.

Figure 3.   The Three Aspects of the UK Army's Officer Career Development
Source: United Kingdom Army, Army Code 64257, *Officer Career Development Handbook (OCDH),* December 2008, Issue 3.1, http://library/baebb/pages/8_G1G4/OCDH.htm (accessed 5 April 2011), 1-1.
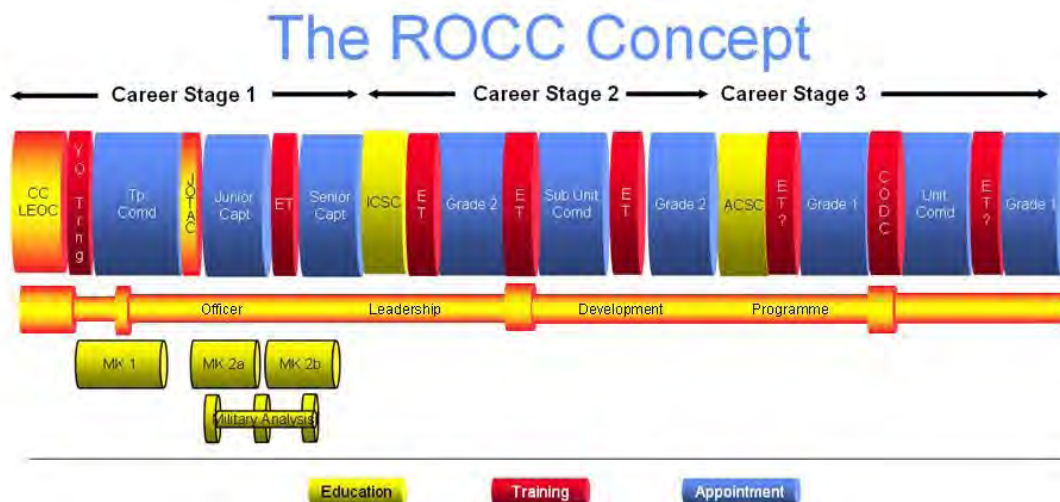
Figure 4.   The ROCC Model
Source: United Kingdom Ministry of Defence, ―OCD Generic Brief, 2002,‖ http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/tna/+/http://www.mod.uk (accessed 28 October 2010), 19.

The OCD Programme, and therefore the ROCC Model, is based on three career

stages that encompass an officer's entire career. Stage One begins at an officer's

commissioning course and ends at promotion to Major. Stage Two begins with promotion

to Major and attendance at the Intermediate Command and Staff Course [Land]

(ICSC[L]). Stage Three begins when an officer is promoted to Lieutenant Colonel and attends the Advanced Command and Staff Course. The remainder of this chapter discusses only Stage 1 of the ROCC Model since this stage guides the education and training of junior officers up to promotion to Major.
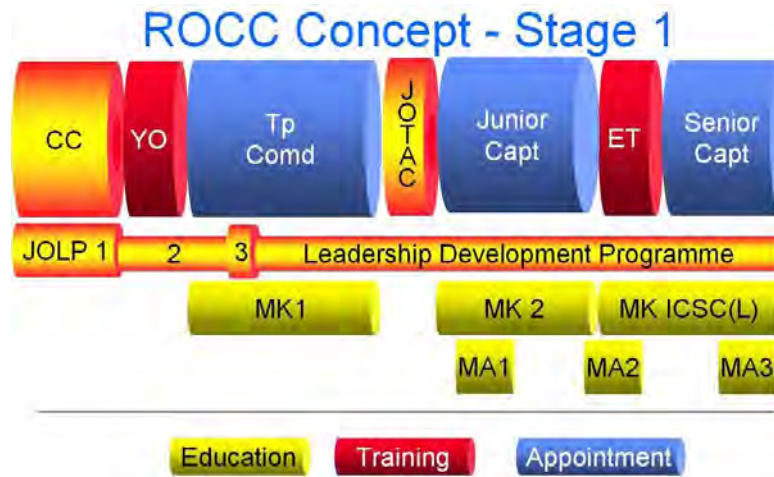
Figure 5.   Stage 1 of the ROCC Model
Source: Created by author based on illustrations in United Kingdom Ministry of Defence, ―OCD Generic Brief, 2002,‖ http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/tna/+/http://www.mod.uk (accessed 28 October 2010), 19.

Stage 1 of the ROCC Model begins with two resident based courses which are the Commissioning Course and arm (branch) specific training. The Junior Officer Leadership Programme (JOLP) serves as an overarching continuous process to develop junior officers' leadership abilities. JOLP has three phases and successful completion is required prior to promotion to Captain.[39] JOLP 1 runs concurrent with the Commissioning Course and introduces leadership theory and basic application. At the completion of JOLP 1,

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[39]OCDH, 12-1.

junior officers receive feedback on their leadership strengths and weaknesses. Junior officers receive JOLP 2 while serving in their regiments. Within the JOLP 2 framework, Commanding Officers are required to actively provide constructive feedback and mentoring to continue to develop junior officer leadership abilities. JOLP 2 does not end when an officer attends JOLP 3, but continues until attendance at the Joint Officers Tactical Awareness Course (JOTAC). JOLP 3 is a four day DL course that junior officers attend at their Army Education Centre. JOLP 1 and 2 do not produce official course reports for the officer's record. However, completion of JOLP 3 results in a certificate of training that is placed in each officer's permanent records.[40]

Military Knowledge (MK) 1 and MK2 are both knowledge based DL courses that require approximately 50-60 hours of study accomplished over a period of time and during the officer's normal duty day.[41] Lieutenants are required to complete MK1 prior to attendance at JOTAC and prior to promotion to Captain. MK1 provides knowledge based instruction on basic battle group level doctrine that also prepares them for JOTAC and MK2.[42] Captains are required to complete MK2 and MK ICSC(L) prior to promotion to Major and attendance to ICSC(L).[43] MK2 ~~prepares~~ prepares captains for [staff officer] and senior

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[40]OCDH, 12-2.

[41]Ibid., 10A-1.

[42]Ibid., 14-1.

[43]Ibid., 17-1; Member of the Defence Academy's DLPO, Interview by author, Shrivenham, England, 5 April 2011.

Regimental Duty appointments."[44] Similar to JOLP 3, the OCDH directs operational units to counsel and mentor their officers in all MK modules.[45]

JOTAC is a three week resident course designed to ―educate junior officers by developing their military knowledge and tactical understanding of BG operations in a combined arms environment."[46] This course began in 2004 and is at the Land Warfare School in Warminster. Lieutenants must complete JOTAC before promotion to Captain. There are also three Military Analysis (MA) modules that UK Captains must complete prior to promotion to Major. These three modules are four day resident courses conducted at an Army Education Centre. Captains can attend these MA modules at any time, but they are required to wait at least six months between each one. The OCDH states that ―The aim of MA is to develop the ability to challenge and critically test hypotheses in order to produce the flexibility of thought and attitude required by captains, using the medium of contemporary defence studies."[47]

Stage 1 of the ROCC Model also includes Employment Training (ET). The OCD describes ET training as ―a just-enough, just-on-time [training] to meet the employers' essential needs not covered on the core programme."[48] ET requirements vary with officers' duties in the UK Army's Arms. In other words, each Arm of the Army specifies its own technical training requirements. For example, a newly commissioned artillery

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[44]OCDH, 17-1.

[45]Ibid., 13-1.

[46]Ibid., 15-1.

[47]Ibid., 15B1-1.

[48]Ibid., 2-1.

officer attends Young Officer artillery specific training upon completion of the Commissioning Course. Approximately three years later, the same officer attends the 20 week Regimental Artillery Captains Course.[49]

ROCC Model Studies and Evolution

As a result of the DTR and ROCC, the Defence Academy developed plans in 2001 for computer delivered DL courses, known as MK, to replace a portion of the time Captains spent in residential education. Hampered by a lack of experience in computer based PME, the Defence Academy struggled to develop computer based courseware from existing resident based products.[50]

Before the end of 2002, the Defence Academy realized their process for developing computer based DL courseware was ineffective for three reasons. First, by August, it required 3,000 man-hours to develop only four percent of the material. Second, 90 percent of the IT infrastructure across the UK Army was incapable of running the DL programs. Finally, the 75 lesson template was too rigid to developing courseware from existing materials. Despite setbacks, by May 2003, the Defence Academy fielded initial MK courses to UK Army Captains.[51] Initially, the courseware was delivered via books and software on CDs. In time, the Defence Academy migrated MK courseware to the

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[49]Ibid., 19-1 and 19A-1.

[50]Jim Potts ―20090525 MK1 Timeline," Prezi Inc. http://prezi.com/5y5egx2qrpnq/20090525-mk1-timeline/ (accessed 30 April 2011).

[51]Ibid. Note: Current MK modules are delivered to all UK Army and Royal Marine officers, Captain and below.

Defence Learning Portal (DLP), which allowed Captains with a computer and internet access to use the materials worldwide.

According to an assessment of the MK courseware in 2006, UK Army Captains had a negative attitude towards the computer-based DL MK courses. This assessment identified the following five reasons for the negative attitudes:[52]

1. The computer based summative assessments were inflexible and inaccurately tested students' knowledge.

2. Captains required more time to complete courses and assessments than estimated by developers.

3. The Student population was not familiar with computer-based courses. This added to the lack of user acceptance.

4. There was a lack of sufficient information technology (IT) to support courseware.

5. There was a lack of chain of command support for MK courses and educational requirements.

The Distance Learning Programme Office (DLPO) within the UK Defence Academy conducted an informal survey of recently promoted Majors in the ICSC(L)5 course in February 2009. The survey deliberately focused on developing quantifiable evidence of what students felt was wrong with MK2 . . . [without acquiring] comment[s] on what was

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[52]The assessment's findings were not limited to these five. These five were chosen as the most applicable to the thesis. Sarah Buck, ―Creating the Military e-Learning Culture: Evaluating Assessment Techniques" (Paper presented at the 32nd Annual International Association for Education Assessment, Singapore, 22 May 2006), http://www.iaea2006.seab.gov.sg/conference/programme.html (accessed 22 June 2010).

right."[53] This survey had similar findings to the 2006 assessment in regards to Chain of Command involvement, quality of assessments, and IT infrastructure.[54] In addition, the survey also identified Captains and their Chain of Command viewed MK courses "as a hurdle to be overcome rather than as a professional learning opportunity."[55]

Understanding the problems with the implementation of computer-based DL courses, the Defence Academy made changes in the last two years to improve the MK Programme. Some of these changes included: [56]

1. Developed a comprehensive semi-annual course review and improvement process. This process involves students, course developers, course content subject matter experts, certified educators, course managers, IT programmers, and approval from an established military body of governance. This process generates hundreds of corrections and improvements every cycle.

2. Improved the summative assessments at the end of each lesson directly based on student feedback.

3. Internet administered summative assessments are now timed to ensure better compliance with the intent of MK learning objectives.

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[53]Jim Potts, "The Military Knowledge (MK) Programme–The Officer Education Challenge" (Information Paper for the College of Management and Technology, UK Defence Academy, Shrivenham, England, 14 May 2010), 1.

[54]Ibid., 1,4.

[55]Ibid., 8.

[56]Members of the Defence Academy's DLPO, Interview by author, Shrivenham, England, 5 April 2011; UK Defence Academy, "Military Knowledge (MK) Mentor Guide" under "Military Knowledge Documents," http://www.da.mod.uk/mk/documents/ (accessed 4 April 2011).

4. Improved IT infrastructure and courseware technological requirements.

5. Initiated on-line communication tools between students to encourage collaborative learning.

6. Further defined operational units' responsibility to mentor MK students in educational matters and recommended organizational models to help units establish a mentorship program.

7. Refined and reduced MK content to achieve course time standards and focus students on the most relevant material.

8. Revised the MK programme into three modules (MK1, MK2, and MK ICSC[L]) to improve the timing of MK modules and increase the relevance to Captains.

9. Reinvigorated the MK governance structure, which improved oversight and involvement in the quality of the MK Programme.

According to student exit surveys from June through November of 2010, MK students had a positive attitude toward MK courses in all twelve questions asked. The majority of the students felt that the MK assessments appropriately tested their knowledge, the course length was the same as described, and the IT infrastructure supported the courseware. [57] While personnel within the Defense Academy stated that they have not solved all of the problems with MK courses, recent exit surveys over a short time period indicate that recent changes improved the quality of MK modules.[58]

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[57]United Kingdom, Ministry of Defence, Defence Academy, "MK INVAL Results," under "Military Knowledge," http://www.da.mod.uk/mk/mk-news/view-graphs-showing-the-inval-data (accessed 4 April 2011).

[58]Jim Potts, e-mail message to author, 6 May 2011.

<u>Development of ALC 2015 and the Impact</u>
<u>on Captains' Education</u>

The third theme of this chapter is the development of ALC 2015. Before ALC

2015 was introduced, other documents, such as the Army Training and Leader

Development Panel (ATLDP), advocated modifying educational models in Officers'

PME. This panel's report described TRADOC PME as ‑knowledge-level, classroom

instruction in weapons and tactics. Knowledge level (low level of training) instruction is

required, but this instruction alone cannot grow self-aware and adaptive leaders."[59] It

later suggested that the Army should invest in distance learning technology that would

support ‑self development and instill life long learning in Soldiers."[60]

Not long after the ATLDP completed its report, TRADOC prepared to implement

a new educational model for Army Captains. This model had two phases known as the

Combined Arms Staff Course and the Combined Arms Battle Command Course. As their

names indicate, one was designed to prepare Captains for staff assignments and the other

was to prepare Captains for command. In a modular fashion, the intent was to deliver the

right education to Captains at the right time. In early 2003, the Chief of Staff of the Army

publicly announced a change in Captains education, however, due to concerns among

senior Army leadership, the TRADOC Commander and Chief of Staff of the Army

decided to cancel plans to implement the Combined Arms Staff Course and the

Combined Arms Battle Command Course in August 2003.[61] Thereafter, two further

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[59]ATLDP, OS-12.

[60]ATLDP, OS-17.

[61]Concerns likely included the expected upfront costs to transition to a model and
the unknown risks of transforming Captains education during a time of war. CCC 2010

models were developed to transform the CCC into a modular learning model, but each time these models were rejected due to a perceived risk of educational quality.[62] Meanwhile, between 2005 and 2009, the majority of the CCCs underwent important internal curriculum revisions to maintain relevance with changes in the operational environment and doctrine.

In early 2009, GEN Martin Dempsey, then TRADOC Commander, identified the need to redesign the CCC. Later in the year, he directed that CAC develop options for a shortened resident CCC with development of DL curriculum.[63] In January 2011, TRADOC published ALC 2015 based on the TRADOC Commander's vision. Based on emerging needs in the current and near future learning environments, this document outlined the new educational concept for US Army Captains.[64]

The purpose of ALC 2015 ―is to describe an Army learning model that meets the all-volunteer Army's need to develop adaptive, thinking Soldiers and leaders capable of meeting the challenges of operational adaptability in an era of persistent conflict." In order to accomplish this, the concept aims to develop an Army of lifelong learners by describing a ―learning continuum that blurs the lines between the Operational Army and the Generating Force by meshing together self-development, institutional instruction, and

Study, 10-11; Donald Ellerthorpe, ―Point Paper: Captains' Officer Education System (CPTs OES)," for the US Army Center for Army Leadership, 20 August 2003.

[62]2010 CCC Study, 11.

[63]Ibid., 11,12.

[64]ALC 2015, 54.

operational experience."[65] As depicted in the excerpt below, ALC 2015 specifies required changes to Captains level education.

> By 2015, the CCC is envisioned to be a more tailored, modular learning approach completed over time, with a mix of resident and nonresident-gated learning events that include both standardized and tailored learning modules. This may include face-to-face common core instruction taught at installation regional learning centers and branch technical and tactical resident module. Newly promoted captains, in coordination with their chain of command, can use the Army Career Tracker to develop a sequence of mandatory and elective learning. Tailored learning modules would include some self-paced, structured self-development combined with networked links to other students and branch school facilitators in a blended learning approach.[66]

Through its transformation of current officer education, ALC 2015 seeks to achieve many objectives. Three objectives are especially pertinent to this thesis.[67] The first objective is ―promote lifelong learning" which is a desired 21st Century Soldier Competency. Lifelong learners ―continually assess themselves, identify what they need to learn and use skills that help them to effectively acquire and update knowledge, skills, and attitudes."[68] The second objective is to ensure education meets the generational learning needs of Captains. ALC 2015 recognizes that its professionals are from various backgrounds, experiences, and generations, and therefore, delivery methods must account for their educational needs.[69] The third objective is to provide adaptive education and

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[65]ALC 2015, 5.

[66]Ibid., 54.

[67]Ibid., 16-29. Note: As described in chapter 3, these three ALC 2015 objectives are combined with the three similarities between US and UK educational models to formulate the survey's nine main question categories. See Chapter 3, ―Methodology," for further details.

[68]Ibid., 42.

[69]Ibid., 6.

courseware.[70] Adaptable courseware maintains relevance, accounts for learner's needs, and accounts for the operational Army's needs. To summarize the effect on Captains education, ALC 2015 eliminates the one time resident CCC at a branch school and introduces a modular, DL supported, and chain of command involved educational model.[71]
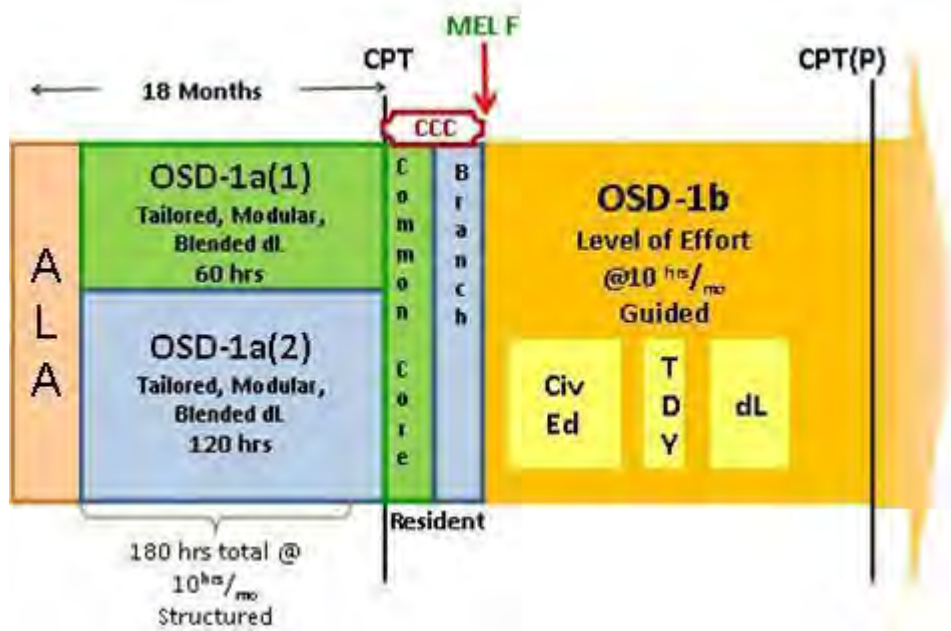
Figure 6.   SALT's MLC 2015
Source: Created by Author based on an illustration in a briefing from the US Army School of Advanced Leadership and Tactics, *SALT MLC 2015 TELECON* (Fort Leavenworth, KS, 9 May 2011), 3.
Note: Acronyms in this illustration are from the MLC 2015 and their meanings are listed here: ALA=Army Learning Assessment, OSD=Officer Self Development, CCC=Captains Career Course, MEL=Military Education Level, Civ Ed=Civilian Education, TDY=Temporary Duty, dL=Distributed Learning.

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[70]Ibid., 16.

[71]Ibid., 18-21, 26, 54.

SALT is developing the structure and plans of the new Captains educational model to satisfy the requirements in ALC 2015. SALT's new model is known as the Mid-Grade Learning Continuum for 2015 (MLC 2105) seen graphically in figure 6 (for active duty officers).[72] At their first duty assignment, First Lieutenants will take a proctored exam known as the Army Learning Assessment (ALA). Similar to a civilian college entrance or credit exam, the ALA assesses the officer's aptitude and experience in three areas: common doctrine, branch specific doctrine, and communicative skills. According to MLC 2015, ―The Army Learning Management System provides ALA results to the officer, his or her chain of command, SALT, and the branch school in order to tailor the follow on OSD-1 DL course."[73]

If an officer scores less than 80 percent in any area on the ALA, he or she is required to complete associated DL courses prior to attendance at the resident CCC courses: common core and branch. These modular DL courses are known as Officer Self Development (OSD)-1. OSD-1 is further broken in to two components: OSD-1a(1) prepares the officer for resident CCC Common Core, and OSD-1a(2) prepares the officer for resident CCC branch instruction. The mid-grade officer's commander or supervisor is responsible to provide counseling on the results and coordinate with the officer to attend required OSD-1 modules prior to attendance at the resident CCC courses. Dependent on the officer's ALA scores, he or she may be required to complete up to 180 hours of DL prior to the CCC courses. The MLC 2015 model expects officers, when required, to

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[72]US Army School of Advanced Leadership and Tactics, ―The Mid-Grade Learning Continuum for 2015 (MLC 2015)," v 0.3, Fort Leavenworth, KS, 18 March 2011, i.

[73]MLC 2015, 7.

complete 10 hours of DL a month. Therefore, if an officer is required to complete 180 hours of OSD-1a DL modules, he or she has 18 months to complete the DL courses. If the officer scores over 80 percent in all areas of the ALA, there is no requirement to complete OSD-1a DL courses.[74]

The ALC 2015 model includes an online tracking tool known as the Army Career Tracker (ACT). The ACT is expected to increase Captains' ability to manage their education program and assist commanders' participation. ACT is currently integrated with Army Knowledge Online, and therefore, all Soldiers have access to ACT. Once fully implemented, ACT will track an officer's formal and informal education.[75]

After the completion of OSD-1a modules, or if the officer scores at least 80 percent on all areas of the ALA, newly promoted Captains will attend the new CCC. In the MLC 2015 model, the new CCC is a two phased course. Typically, these two phases are also timed with the officer's Permanent Change of Station to a new assignment location. The first phase of CCC is resident Common Core course held at installation education centers or at new Regional Learning Centers. If the officer is stationed at an installation that offers the Common Core course, he or she is placed in a Temporary Duty for Education (TDE) status. As ALC 2015 describes, TDE is ―a proposed policy change that clearly differentiates the time spent on mandatory learning from unit duty time. TDE is a forcing function that demonstrates the Army's commitment to a lifelong learning

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[74]All OSD-1a and ALA details in this paragraph is a summary of the model found in MLC 2015, 7-9; SALT MLC 2015 TELECON, 3, 4.

[75]ALC 2015, 21; MLC, 2015, 13.

culture."[76] If the officer is not stationed at an installation that offers the Common Core course, then the Captain attends the course at his or her next duty location. If neither of these locations offer the Common Core course, the Captain will attend at the nearest installation in a Temporary Duty status. SALT CCC developers anticipate that the CCC Common Core course will consist of a common curriculum for all Captains in the Army, and all CCC Common Core small group classrooms will be comprised of students from across the Army's branches.[77]

The second phase of CCC is the resident branch course (BR TDY). BR TDY is held at each of the branch schools or Centers of Excellence. For example, a Field Artillery Captain attends the BR TDY at Fort Sill's Fires Center of Excellence. BR TDY curriculum and course length are determined by the Branch Commandants and approved by the CAC Commander.[78] If the officer is not already stationed at his or her branch's installation, he or she attends BR TDY in a Temporary Duty status. Once complete with all branch and common CCC requirements, each Captain is awarded Military Education Level Code F.

ALC 2015 envisions that officers pursue lifelong learning; however, once a Captain is awarded Military Education Level Code F, he or she is not required to attend another course until the CGSC's ILE as a Major or promotable Captain. The MLC 2015 model identifies this gap in educational requirements and states that officers will

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[76]ALC 2015, 27-28.

[77]Ibid., 54.

[78]The current version of MLC 2015 limits Branch Commandants to 12 weeks of BR TDY. If a commandant requires more than 12 weeks, he or she may submit a request to the CAC Commander.

participate in OSD-1b. According to MLC 2015, ―OSD-1b is a tailored, modular and blended dL (and civilian education if the officer chooses) effectively completing the officer's requirements within the MLC, thereby preparing the officer for ILE and beyond. OSD-1b credits are earned for each 10 hours of learning effort completed."[79] The OSD-1b program and requirements are similar to a professional continuing education credit like those found in civilian medical or legal systems. MLC 2015 considers OSD-1b as guided. Officers in OSD-1b are guided by their Chain of Command and their Branch on a learning plan designed to meet Captains' educational desires, prepare them for specific jobs at their current assignment, and prepare them for attendance at ILE.[80] OSD-1b credit is tracked through ACT and verified through commander or supervisor comments on officers' evaluation reports.[81] Some examples of continuing education credit may include branch specialty courses, civilian education towards a master's degree, and assignment specific courses.

The MLC 2015 model described in this chapter is currently under development and may have significant changes prior to approval. At the time of this thesis completion, SALT is conducting initial testing of an ALA, OSD-1a(1) DL courses, and a resident common core course. ALA testing began in May 2011 with 32 active duty US Army Captains from various branches at Fort Bliss. The initial CCC resident Common Core ―proof-of-principle" course is held at Fort Bliss from 1 August to 16 September 2011.[82]

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[79]MLC 2015, 9.

[80]Ibid.; SALT MLC 2015 TELECON, 3, 4.

[81]MLC 2015, 13.

[82]SALT MLC 2015 TELECON, 6.

The Common Core course curriculum at Fort Bliss will be a brand new course at the application level of learning and different from the current CCC Common Core curriculum used in all branch schools which is at the knowledge level of learning. Feedback from these 32 students and their instructors will assist SALT in further development of the MLC 2015 model.[83]

Comparison of ROCC and MLC 2015 Education Models

The fourth theme of this chapter compares the two newest models discussed in this thesis which are the MLC 2015 and the ROCC Stage 1. Figure 7 graphically depicts the identified similarities between these two models. These three similarities are: (1) modular instruction, (2) reliance on DL, and (3) dependence on operational unit involvement.
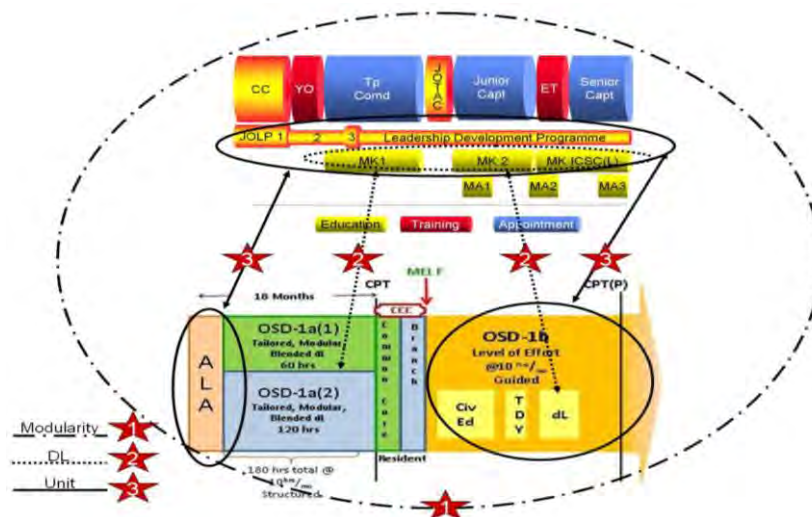
Figure 7.   Similarities Between ROCC Stage 1 and MLC 2015
Source: Created by Author based on illustrations in US Army School of Advanced Leadership and Tactics, ―The Mid-Grade Learning Continuum for 2015 (MLC 2015),‖ v 0.3 (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Government Printing Office, 18 March 2011), i; United Kingdom Ministry of Defence, ―OCD Generic Brief, 2002,‖ http://webarchive.national archives.gov.uk/tna/+/http:// www.mod.uk (accessed 28 October 2010), 19.

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[83]Ibid.

The first similarity is the modular nature of both models. Described in further detail later in this chapter, a module is an ―independent unit of learning activities that meet well-defined educational objectives.‖[84] Modular instruction methods are those that use multiple modules that are designed to achieve educational goals. The second similarity between these two models is their use of DL to achieve educational objectives. The ROCC Stage 1 model uses DL courseware for their JOLP 3 course and all MK modules. The MLC 2015 model relies on DL courseware for OSD-1a and OSD-1b education modules.

The third similarity between these two models is their reliance on unit leadership to mentor and guide their Captains through required modular education and training. The ROCC Stage 1 model requires the junior officer to receive JOLP assessment counseling from both the school and unit leadership. This counseling should produce a plan to improve the officer's leadership abilities in areas that need improvement. In a similar fashion, the MLC 2015 model assesses a First Lieutenant's aptitude through the ALA. Based on the results of the ALA, the officer receives a tailored DL education plan developed by SALT and branch commandants.[85] The results of the ALA are reviewed by the unit Chain of Command who should then counsel the officer on his or her performance and ensure they have a plan to complete the OSD-1(a) modules. Unit involvement is not limited to JOLP 1-3, the ALA, and OSD-1(a). Both models indicate

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[84]Barbara Goldschmid and Marcel L. Goldschmid. ―Modular Instruction In Higher Education: A Review," *Higher Education* 2, (1973): 16.

[85]MLC 2015, 7-8.

that through a Captain's career, unit leadership should continue to counsel, advise, and prescribe education or training courses.[86]

Related Educational Concepts

The fifth theme of this chapter reviews pertinent educational concepts that are identified as the three main similarities between ROCC Stage 1 and MLC 2015. These three concepts are: (1) DL instruction, (2) modular or lifelong learning, and (3) experience versus training versus educational domains. Scholarly articles and books introduce the first two concepts, US Army leader and educational strategies offer an introduction to the last concept. This review of pertinent educational concepts is directly related to the development of the survey instrument because the questions in the survey instrument are divided into the same three areas.

Distributed, Distance, and Blended Learning

To the frustration of US Army educators, US officers typically have low opinions of their experience with DL.[87] For example, in 2003, the ATLDP reported US Army officers are not convinced of DL benefits. In general, the report stated that officers believe DL takes away from their personal time because their units do not set time aside from work to study. In contrast, these same officers believe that education involving peer interaction is the best method of delivery.[88] As defined by AR 350-1, DL is:

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[86]Ibid., 7-9; OCDH, 13-1.

[87]William R. Bickley et al., *Army Institutional Training: Current Status and Future Research, Research Report 1921* (Arlington, VA: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, March 2010), 51.

[88]ATLDP, 18.

The delivery of standardized individual, collective, and self-development training to Soldiers, DA Civilians, units, and organizations at the right place and time through the use of multiple means and technology. Distributed learning may involve student-instructor interaction in real time (for example, via two-way audio/video television) and non-real time (for example, via computer-based training). It may also involve self-paced student instruction without benefit of access to an instructor (for example, correspondence programs).[89]

Building on the DL definition, AR 350-1 also defines blended learning as an extension of DL that includes some form of delivery at a resident location (either at the institution or a satellite location).[90]

ALC 2015 recognizes that officers have little faith in the merits of DL and it acknowledges that ―challenges and problems with DL quality, development, and maintenance within the Army have caused many negative perceptions to persist, while at the same time, enrollment in online universities has increased greatly.‖[91] Therefore, ALC 2015's believes the Army can leverage technology to deliver a better DL product than it currently experiences. ALC 2015 also states that DL will improve by 2015, and when it does, it will replicate many of the benefits that resident courses historically have. Examples of future DL benefits include synchronous student teacher relations, peer interaction, learning in virtual small group classrooms, and attending courses from anywhere around the world.[92] ALC 2015 also addresses concerns that DL deprives officers of their personal time. The concept introduces a new duty status, known as

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[89]AR 350-1, 200.

[90]Ibid., 198.

[91]ALC 2015, 51.

[92]Ibid., 20,52.

Temporary Duty for Education (TDE), which frees an officer from his or her normal duty requirements.

Modular Instruction and Life Long Learning

Modular instruction (MI) and lifelong learning (LL) are related concepts and therefore placed together in this section of the chapter. These learning concepts are important to review because both of them are integrated in the UK ROCC model and SALT's MLC 2015 model. MI and LL theories existed prior to the ubiquitous use of e-Learning, but today, these theories are greatly enhanced by internet technology.

The theory of MI has not changed much in nearly 40 years. A definition of a module is ―A self-contained, independent unit of a planned series of learning activities designed to help the student accomplish certain well-defined objectives."[93] Considering this definition of a module, MI would logically be defined as education that is based on a series of modules. Understanding both of these definitions, it is generally accepted that MI methods are designed for self-study without strict schedules.[94] Without a strict schedule, MI has enabled working individuals to attend classes that would otherwise be impossible through traditional institutions. For this reason alone, MI has become a popular method for both schools and busy students. Another unique aspect of MI is its ability to tailor an educational program for individual student needs. Tailoring is accomplished by first assessing the needs and then by delivering only the modules to address the needs. In theory, a program that is tailored to a student's interests and needs

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[93]Goldschmid, 16.

[94]Ibid.

will result in a greater motivation to learn.[95] ALC 2015 embraces this approach to

modularity. As discussed previously, the MLC 2015 model assesses junior officer

competency, aptitude, and experience in three areas: common doctrine, branch specific

doctrine, and communicative arts. The ALA conducts this assessment and is administered

to First Lieutenants at their unit of assignment. Based on the results of the ALA, a

program of modules is assigned to the officer for completion prior to attending resident

Captains' level courses.[96]

ALC 2015 repeatedly states that LL is important to future Army education and

that ―Soldiers must acquire the habits of lifelong learners."[97] In the last decade, senior US

Army leaders echoed the importance of LL.[98] TRADOC defines lifelong learning as:

> The ability of a Soldier to learn, grow and achieve technically and tactically
> throughout a career, wherever they serve. Lifelong learning begins with recruiter
> contact and progresses until ETS/retirement. Lifelong learning is a mixture of
> traditional schoolhouse resident education/training and education/training
> presented in other locations at the individual's teachable moment. Lifelong
> learning uses the most effective mix of locations, materials and methods delivered
> just in time, on demand, and is adaptive to Soldiers regardless of location.
> Distance learning and Web-based education-and-training materials are tools of
> lifelong learning.[99]

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[95]Ibid.

[96]MLC 2015, 7-9.

[97]ALC 2015, 14.

[98]Matthew R. McKinley, ―An Assessment of the Army Officer Education System from an Adult Learning Perspective" (Monograph, School of Advanced Military Studies, 26 May 2005), http://www.cgsc.edu/carl/contentdm/sams.htm (accessed 28 October 2010), 11.

[99]US Army Training and Doctrine Command, ―Definitions," under ―Office of the Chief of Public Affairs," http://www.tradoc.army.mil/pao/Web_specials/life long_learning/definitions.htm (accessed 28 October 2010).

ALC 2015 argues that the current officer educational model does not support a culture of lifelong learners.[100] In order to establish LL into the Army culture, ALC 2015 describes that universal digital literacy is the key. In light of this concept, the ALC states that Soldiers must be digitally literate immediately upon integration in the Army.[101] Some contemporary civilian educators also agree and assert that internet enabled instruction is the tool that is creating a society of lifelong learners.[102]

MI and LL are directly linked. It should be understood that MI is a delivery method and LL is an educational concept. MI can assist and facilitate LL; however, a culture of LL can exist without the use of MI. MI is an important concept to this thesis because ALC 2015 states, ―By 2015, the CCC is envisioned to be a more tailored, modular learning approach completed over time."[103] This change in the Captains education model is part of the concept's plan to further develop a culture of lifelong learners within the US Army officer corps.

Experience, Training, and Education

In order to explain and effect leader development of its officers, the US Army uses a theoretical model known as the Army Leader Development Model. This section of the chapter reviews this model. Shown in figure 8, the three circles in the center of the diagram represent the model's three training domains. These three training domains

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[100]ALC 2015, 6-8, 14.

[101]Ibid., 30.

[102]Bryn Holmes and John Gardner, *e-Learning: Concepts and Practice* (Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications, 2007), 59.

[103]ALC 2015, 54.

(Institutional, Operational, and Self-Development) ~~are~~ spheres of learning in which unit

training and leader development activities occur."[104] The Institutional Domain represents

the training and education system. TRADOC is primarily responsible for the institutional

domain.[105] Operational units have primary responsibility of the Operational Domain. The

final domain, Self-Development, is driven by leaders for themselves. Leaders who are

life long learners should identify their own professional shortcomings from the other two

domains and actively seek learning methods to eliminate the gaps.[106]
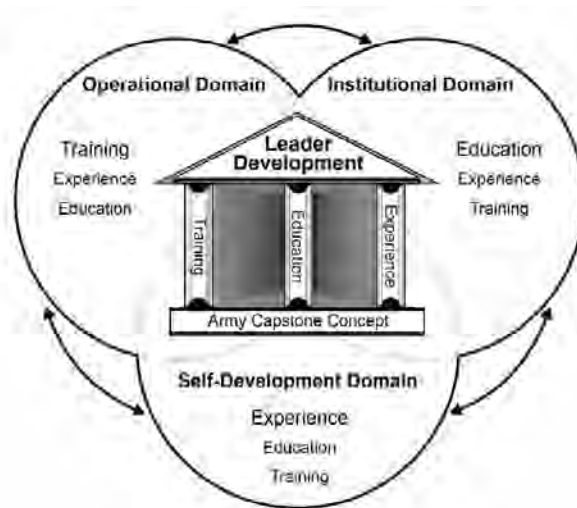
Figure 8.   The US Army's Leader Development Model
Source: Headquarters, US Army Training and Doctrine Command, FM 7-0, *Training Units and Developing Leaders for Full Spectrum Operations* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 23 February 2011), 2-6.

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[104]FM 7-0, 2-6.

[105]ALC 2015, 43.

[106]ATLDP, 17-18.

ALDM is relevant to this thesis because of ALC 2015's assessment of the current and future interrelations between these domains. ALC 2015 states that ―These domains primarily function independently in the current learning environment."[107] ALC 2015 believes that in order for officers to become lifelong learners, ―Army . . . domains require holistic integration."[108] ALC 2015's commitment to integrating these domains is apparent in the MLC 2015 concept discussed previously. For example, results of a First Lieutenant's ALA are reviewed and discussed between the school, the unit leadership, and the officer. This requires all three domains to participate and commit to the officer's learning goals and plan.[109]

<u>An Organization's Natural Resistance to Change</u>

The sixth theme of this chapter is a review of organizational change theory. The purpose of this theme is to acknowledge that Army-wide resistance to changes in Captains' education may be due to a natural organizational resistance to change. As presented in chapter 1, approximately 75 percent of blog respondents were opposed to changes in Captains education as presented in the blog. Common reasons for opposing the changes included: (1) a lack of confidence in DL; (2) belief that small group peer to peer learning is superior to other methods of instruction; (3) the lack of a clearly defined problem statement to initiate a change in the current model; and (4) a lack of confidence in operational units' ability and willingness to participate in their Captains' education.

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[107]Ibid., 43.

[108]Ibid., 14.

[109]MLC 2015, 6.

Unlikely a coincidence, the ALC 2015 concept thoroughly addresses each of these reasons of opposition.

According to change experts, simply addressing the concerns will not make opposition go away. William Bridges is one expert on organizational change, who started his interest in this field when he was a young university professor. In his book on managing organizational change, Bridges recalls how frustrating it was to observe older professors resisting change that appeared logical.[110] He explains in his guide to managing change that individuals have a natural tendency to overlook the big picture when their own identity is rooted into that which requires change. In other words, a threat to the old ways directly challenges an individual's identity, and therefore, emotionally, these same individuals feel that organizational change will result in their loss.[111]

John Kotter is another expert in organizational change, whose model is currently taught at the US Army's CGSC. Like Bridges, Kotter also believes that individuals are emotionally attached to long standing methods and are emotionally resistant to change. According to Kotter, the organization's culture, rather than just an individual's identity, is the source of change opposition. He defines an organization's culture as ―norms of behavior and shared values among a group of people.‖[112] Kotter identifies the shared values as something extremely important to understand, because these shared values are

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[110]William Bridges, *Managing Transitions: Making the Most of Change*, 2nd ed. (Cambridge, MA: Da Capo Press, 2003), ix-xi.

[111]Ibid., 4.

[112]John P. Kotter, *Leading Change* (Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press, 1996), 148-156.

passed on to new employees as they are indoctrinated into the organization, and therefore, will not simply go away with personnel turnover.

If Kotter's theory on organizational culture is correct, then Army officers' attitudes about changes in their Captains education system might simply be an organization's natural resistance to change. After all, the current model of Captains' education is a resident one time CCC that has educated nearly seven generations of US Army officers. Kotter also explains that an organization's culture cannot change simply by force. He states that leaders must change the organization's actions first and then let the organization see success after change. Kotter believes that once the culture sees success in the new actions, only then will the culture truly change.[113] If he is correct, US Army officers may not believe in the ALC 2015 concept until changes are made and the results are successful. If successfully implemented by 2015, significant changes in US Army officer culture may not occur until 2017 or later.

Kotter's model for leading changes in an organization has eight steps.[114] According to Kotter, the first step, ―Establishing a Sense of Urgency," is essential ―because . . . without motivation, people won't help, and the effort goes nowhere."[115] Kotter also estimates that 75 percent of an organization's leaders should be convinced

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[113]Ibid.

[114]The thesis discusses only the first step. Kotter's eight steps are: (1) Establish a sense of urgency, (2) Form a powerful guiding coalition, (3) Create a vision, (4) Communicate the vision, (5) Empower others to act on the vision, (6) Plan for and create short-term wins, (7) Consolidate improvements and produce more change, and (8) Institutionalize new approaches. John P. Kotter, ―Leading Change: Why Transformation Efforts Fail," *Harvard Business Review (HBR)* (January 2007): 1.

[115]Ibid., 3.

that current practices are unacceptable. He believes that ―anything less can produce very serious problems later on in the process."[116] As discussed in the introduction of this thesis, the CAC Commander initiated a blog which proposed changes to the CCC (proposed changes were: creation of learning centers, distance learning, TDE status, branch TDY, and electives).[117] Approximately 75 percent of the respondents expressed negative attitudes toward the proposed changes. Later, CAC held a weeklong poll on its website that asked ―would creating learning centers at unit locations for the Captains Career Course be a feasible option in lieu of attending the current branch school houses?" According to the CAC Strategic Communication Branch, 90 percent of the poll participants answered ―no."[118] If Kotter is correct and the results of the CAC Commander's blog and week-long poll serve as an indication of leaders' attitudes throughout the Army, then TRADOC and CAC must work hard to establish a sense of urgency in Army leaders at many levels.[119]

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[116]Ibid., 4.

[117]Caslen.

[118]Poll occurred in October 2010 at CAC's website, http://usacac.army.mil/cac2/; Robert A. Whetstone, Branch Chief, Strategic Communication, CAC, e-mail message to author, 18 October 2010.

[119]The blog was not a scientific survey and therefore, the percentage of blog respondents with negative attitudes should not be interpreted as representing US Army officers' attitudes. It is possible that blog readers who had negative attitudes were more likely to respond than those who were neutral or supportive. To achieve clarity in attitudes, a survey could be administered when MLC 2015 is introduced.

<u>Cultural Differences Between UK and US Armies</u>

The final section of this chapter highlights the cultural differences between the UK and US officer corps as they relate to this thesis. The US War Department of 1942 understood that there are cultural differences between American Servicemen garrisoned in the United Kingdom and their British Allies. The War Department provided an instructional book to American Servicemen entitled, *Instructions for American Servicemen in Britain 1942*, which emphasized:

> The British are like the Americans in many ways – but not in all ways. You will quickly discover differences that seem confusing and even wrong. Like driving on the left side of the road . . . and drinking warm beer. But once you get used to things like that, you will realize they belong to England just as baseball and jazz and coca-cola belong to us.[120]

Although simplistic, this 1942 comparison between the UK and US cultures serves as a reminder of the 100-year history these two nations share as allies. But, despite sharing some similarities in beliefs, values, and doctrine, it is important for this study to identify that differences do exist between the UK and US Armies' cultures.

In the conduct of research for this study, UK officers cautioned that the UK Army does not value civilian and military education as much as the US Army. This perception of the UK military's lack of emphasis on external education is echoed by Lieutenant General Sir John Kiszely, former Director of the Defence Academy of the United Kingdom. His essay on UK and US military cultures argued that the UK Army could benefit from its officers studying in external institutions and is behind its peers in doing

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[120]US War Department, *Instructions for American Servicemen in Britain*, (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1942), 14. Reproduced Cambridge, England: University Press, 2004.

so.[121] If true, a cultural difference between the US and UK Armies may dilute the

conclusions and recommendations of this thesis. The survey instrument asks for

participants' perceptions of their education which may be affected by cultural attitudes. If

the UK Army's cultural attitudes toward education are identifiably different than the US

Army's attitudes, then the findings of the survey may not directly apply to US Army

culture and therefore, US Army education models.[122]

In a paper written by a Colonel Ralph G. Arundell, a UK officer studying at the

US Army War College, there are notable differences between the UK and US officer

corps. According to Arundell, the differences begin at commissioning. He argues that the

US Army believes that anyone can be a successful leader with enough education and

training. To support this claim, he cites that US Army officers are commissioned from

various sources with various standards. As a result, the US Army emphasizes continued

education and training after officers are commissioned.[123] Conversely, Arundell cites that

the UK Army does not require its officers to obtain a college degree at any point in their

career. Instead, officer candidates are selected on a series of aptitude tests that ―examine

everything from academic ability, thorough planning skills, team and group interaction,

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[121]John Kiszely, ―Post-Modern Challenges for Modern Warriors‖ (The Shrivenham Papers-Number 5, Defence Academy of the United Kingdom, December 2007), http://www.da.mod.uk/colleges/arag/document-listings/monographs/ shrivenham_paper_5.pdf/view (accessed 4April 2011), 17-18.

[122]As discussed in chapter 3, the study's survey instrument asked participants to share their civilian education qualifications and attitudes toward education in general. Results of these questions are in chapter four along with a comparison to participants' US Army peers.

[123]Ralph G. Arundell, ―US and UK Military Cultural Relevance for Future Warfare‖ (MSSD research project, US Army War College, 2009), 6.

physical tests and fitness."[124] The implied argument is that the UK Army only selects

those who are fit to lead, and the US Army accepts applicants with lower standards in

belief that they can be further developed with robust education and training.

The differences between the two officer corps do not end there. Other significant

cultural differences include the UK Army's regimental system, unparalleled in the US

Army. The UK Army's regimental system is important to its identity and esprit de corps,

but can also be an obstacle to change.[125] Another cultural difference is the grade at which

an officer commands a company. In the US Army, Captains command at the company

level while the UK Army has only Majors commanding at this level. This fact (that UK

Army Captains do not command at the company level) creates differences between UK

and US Army requirements for Captains level education. The difference in educational

requirements for Captains must be considered when applying any of this study's

recommendations.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

This chapter provided the historical and theoretical frameworks for the three

Captains level educational models discussed in this thesis. These three educational

models are: 1) the current US Army CCC; 2) the SALT proposed model to support ALC

2015; and 3) the UK Army ROCC Model. This chapter presented these frameworks

through seven themes. These themes support the research question, the thesis, and

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[124]Ibid., 7.

[125]Ibid., 7-8.

methodology. The next chapter, Methodology, outlines the research methodology used to answer the research question.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The Army Learning Concept recognizes and addresses the arrival of a new
generation of Soldiers in our ranks who have grown up in a digital world.
— General Martin E. Dempsey
―Forward to Army Learning Concept 2015‖

Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology used to answer the research question:

Based on the UK Army's experience with Captains education since 2004, what lessons

learned will assist SALT in its development and implementation of TRADOC's new

educational model for US Army Captains? In order to answer the research question, this

thesis uses the survey research approach as its primary methodology. Additionally, the

author conducted formal and informal post-survey interviews with the study population

and the UK Defence Academy's DLPO. This study is non-experimental and will analyze

the responses of a selected study population of UK Majors. The remainder of this chapter

expands on each of these points.

Primary Research Approach

Based on the comparisons made between the UK ROCC model and the MLC

2015 model in chapter 2, there are three identified similarities. This study used a survey

instrument to collect experiential data from an available population of UK Majors. The

majority of the survey's questions asked participants for their attitudes of their education

as Captains in regards to the similarities identified between these two models. Survey

responses were analyzed to identify trends. Response trends for each question and each

similarity were then analyzed to determine research findings. The results of this analysis placed all response trends into three categories. These three categories are: (1) Positive attitude or perception, (2) Negative attitude or perception, and (3) Neutral attitude or perception that may require further research.

Study Population

As the research question indicates, this study used a survey instrument to collect experiential data from UK Majors. The survey asked UK Majors participating in Exercise Eagle Owl with the US Army's CGSC in February and March 2011 to participate. Eagle Owl is a semi-annual exercise between UK Majors from the UK's Intermediate Command and Staff Course–Land (ICSC-[L]) and US Majors from the US Army's Command and General Staff School's ILE course. This exercise is held at Fort Leavenworth and lasts approximately two weeks. This group of UK Majors was chosen as the study population because of their availability and their experience with Stage 1 of the ROCC model. Based on the career timelines of the study population, nearly all of the participants attended the courses prescribed in Stage 1 of the ROCC model as defined in the OCDH and are therefore qualified to share their experiences.

Development and Design of the Survey Instrument

The unique survey instrument used in this study was a questionnaire provided in paper form to the study population. A copy of this instrument is in Appendix A. The survey instrument consists of 25 questions numbered from 1-12c. The survey's first four questions (1 to 2c) were related to a participant's demographics. The remainder of the questions (3a to 12c) were developed to identify lessons learned from Stage 1 of the

ROCC model. These lessons learned later led to recommendations for the development

and implementation of the US Army's MLC 2015 model.

Question 1 was a qualifier that determined if participants met the criteria to

participate. This question requires the participants to select each of the UK company

grade level officer education courses they completed. In the development of the survey,

UK counterparts advised the researcher that officers in the UK Army valued civilian

education less than their peers in the US Army.[126] Cognizant of this potential difference

in culture, the survey included Questions 2a to 2c to determine the study population's

perceptions of civilian education and their levels of completion

The survey divided the next 18 survey questions (3a to 11b) into three categories

relating to the three major similarities between Stage 1 of the ROCC model and MLC

2015. These three categories are: (1) modular instruction, (2) DL, and (3) chain of

command involvement. Each of these questions were developed by combining one of the

identified similarities with a characteristic of an ALC 2015 desired outcomes.[127] For

example, Question 3b asks for a participant's perception of the following statement: ―The

modular design of the ROCC model motivated me to learn." This question is formed

from the concept of modular education (a similarity between ROCC and MLC 2015) and

from a characteristic of lifelong learning (a desired outcome of ALC 2015). Figure 1

displays a graphical representation of the formation of Questions 3a to 11b. These 18

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[126]In November 2010, the Command and General Staff College's UK LNO and UK education officers from the Defence Academy advised the author to consider the UK Army's differing views toward civilian education for officers.

[127]As mentioned in chapter 2, the three ALC 2015 desired educational outcomes used to formulate the survey's questions are (1) Promote life long learning; (2) Meet the learning needs of Captains; and (3) Provide adaptive education and courseware.

questions (3a to 11b) ask participants to respond using a five point Likert Scale based on their educational experiences as Captains. Response options include: (1) Highly Disagree; (2) Disagree; (3) Neither Agree nor Disagree; (4) Agree; and (5) Highly Agree.

Table 1. Developing Questions 3a-11b			
	Model Similarities		
ALC 2015 Objective	Modularity	DL	Chain of Command Involvement
Lifelong Learning	3a, 3b	6a, 6b	9a, 9b
Adaptive model and Courseware	4a, 4b	7a, 7b	10a, 10b
Meeting educational needs of Captains	5a, 5b	8a, 8b	11a, 11b

Source: Created by author.

The last three questions (12a to 12c) allowed participants to add any comments pertaining to the three similarities (modularity, DL, and chain of command involvement). The survey asked participants for additional comments to provide anecdotal insight into identified trends. For example, Question 12a asks participants, ―What would you like the MOD Directorate of Training (Army) and the researcher to know about your experiences with modular education." After each of these questions (12a to 12c), participants were provided a space to hand write comments.

The format of this study's survey instrument is not original. It is similar to the format that the CGSC's Quality Assurance Office (QAO) uses to evaluate the quality of

ILE courses. QAO regularly asks ILE students to participate in surveys by providing

feedback on their experiences with a specific ILE course. These QAO surveys often asks

participants to respond with a Likert Scale. In addition, these surveys often provide the

opportunity for students to add comments. Once data collection is complete, QAO

conducts an analysis of the responses and reports the comments and statistical findings of

the data. QAO's surveys differ from this study's instrument, in three different ways. First,

QAO's studies are not limited to Likert Scale and comment answer methods. Second,

QAO e-mails invitations to students to participate. Third, the participants complete the

survey online.

Prior to its use, this study's survey instrument underwent reviews, testing, and

approvals. First, SALT and the UK Army's Directorate of Training reviewed the survey

and provided feedback. It was then tested by administering to a UK Army Major

attending ILE. This UK ILE student was selected to test the instrument because his

educational background was the same as the study population's. Finally, CGSC's QAO

and the UK Army's Directorate of Training approved the survey instrument.[128]

<center>Evaluation Criteria and Data Analysis</center>

The survey instrument was the primary source of data for the research. The

majority of the survey (Questions 1 to 11b) was analyzed using quantifiable means. The

data from last three questions of the survey (Questions 12a to 12c), as well as the

interviews, were treated as qualitative data to provide understanding to the statistics and

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[128]QAO approved the survey instrument on 16 February 2011 and assigned survey control number 11-02-057. The UK Directorate of Training (Army) approved the survey on 20 January 2011 (notification through UK Liaison Officer).

to provide anecdotes to illustrate the findings and recommendations. The numerical data from Questions 1 to 11b, were treated in two different ways. First, the analysis of Question 1 treated the responses as nominal data. Second, the analysis of Questions 2a to 11b treated the responses as ordinal data.

Questions 3a to 11c asked participants to rank their perceptions along a five point Likert Scale from ―Highly Agree" to ―Highly Disagree." These questions used a five-point scale, rather than a three-point scale, to mitigate central tendency error; a common risk associated with Likert scales.[129] However, in the analysis, only three categories are compared to clarify the study population's perceptions.[130] These three categories are Agreement, Neither Agree nor Disagree, and Disagreement. Agreement is the sum of ―Agree" and ―Highly Agree" responses. Likewise, Disagreement is the sum of ―Disagree" and ―Highly Disagree" responses. The tables in chapter 4 and Appendix B display the results of each question (3a to 11b) in bar charts.

The three response categories for each question were compared to determine if the study population's overall perception was positive, neutral, or negative. For each question, if more than half of the responses were in the Agreement category, then participants' perceptions or attitudes were overall positive. If more than half of the responses were in the Disagreement category, then participants' perceptions or attitudes were overall negative. Lastly, if neither of those two response categories received over

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[129]A.N. Oppenheim, *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*, new ed. (London, England: Pinter Publishers, 1992), 232-233.

[130]Ibid., 233; Arlene Fink, *How to Conduct Surveys: A Step-by-Step Guide*, 4th ed. (Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications, 2009), 26.

half of the total responses from a survey question, then participants' perceptions or attitudes were overall neutral, or further research is required in relation to that question.

Data Collection

Eagle Owl participants received the survey on the first day of their arrival, 27 February 2011. Through coordination with UK Eagle Owl's leadership, the participants were gathered in an auditorium before the beginning of the exercise. At this time, both UK cadre and the author briefed participants on the survey to include its purpose, the risk, and the right to decline participation.[131] In order to prevent undue influence, the researcher and all UK cadre left the auditorium. Each ICSC(L) student received a blank paper copy of the survey instrument inside of a large envelope. Participants were told to return the survey in the same envelope and to refrain from writing their names on either the survey or envelope. In addition, each participant had the option of either returning the survey in a box at the front of the auditorium or to the author's student mailbox at a later date.

There was a distinct advantage to this data collection methodology. First, all ICSC(L) students at ILE were present in the auditorium and were allotted the time to complete the survey without distraction from the requirements of their exercise. This collection method often results in a near 100 percent response rate.[132] On the other hand, this method has two disadvantages. Since the surveys and their purpose were provided in

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[131]The first page of the survey also included a disclaimer outlining participant rights and instructions for completion. The survey and its disclaimer page are found in Appendix A of this thesis.

[132]Floyd J. Fowler Jr., *Survey Research Methods* (Los Angeles: Sage Publications, 2009), 75.

person, participants may be unintentionally influenced to provide what they perceived as the desired outcome. Another potential disadvantage is that participants might have been able to see each other's answers and therefore compromised participant anonymity. All participants were briefed on these risks and their implications.

<p style="text-align:center">Secondary Research Approaches</p>

In addition to the survey instrument, this thesis used two other methods of data collection. First, the author was a student in the ILE A315 UK Exchange elective. As an A315 student, the author traveled to the UK Defence Academy in Shrivenham, England, and was immersed into the ICSC(L)-7 class for two weeks. While immersed in ICSC(L)-7, the author utilized this unique access to the thesis' study population and conducted numerous informal interviews to gather post-survey amplifying data. These informal sessions added clarity to the participants' responses and comments.

Expanding on this unique opportunity at Shrivenham, the author also coordinated an informal meeting with members of the Defence Academy's DLPO. At this meeting, DLPO members provided presentations that explained their processes used to maintain MK courseware and the history of MK course development. The data gathered at this meeting identified their lessons learned based on seven years of experience with developing DL courseware to support a modular officers' educational model.[133]

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[133]Jim Potts and Quentin Wilkins, meeting with author, Defence Academy, Shrivenham, England, 5 April 2011.

Summary

This chapter introduced the study's methodology to answer the research question of: Based on the UK Army's experience with Captains education since 2004, what lessons learned will assist SALT in its development and implementation of TRADOC's new educational model for US Army Captains? To explain the methodology, the chapter identified and described the survey instrument, study population, the method used to analyze the collected data and the advantages and disadvantages with the instrument. It also discussed the secondary methods of data collection and their purposes. The next chapter presents the analysis of the data and the major findings.

CHAPTER 4

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

> I agree with the benefits of modular education but ultimately the ROCC model
> still requires work.
>
> — UK Army Major
> Comment to Question 12a

Introduction

This chapter presents the survey results with its analysis and is organized into four

areas: (1) summary of survey administration; (2) academic demographics of the study

population; (3) their perceptions on civilian education; and (4) their perceptions of the

ROCC model. This fourth area is further organized into the three similarities between the

ROCC and MLC 2015 models (in the same order in the survey): modularity, DL, and

chain of command involvement. Participants' perceptions of the ROCC model, assists in

answering the research question of the thesis, which is: Based on the Captain's level

educational experiences of UK Army Officers since 2004, what lessons learned will

assist SALT in its development and implementation of TRADOC's new educational

model for US Army Captains?

Summary of Survey Administration

In February 2011, 175 students from ICSC(L) attended the Eagle Owl exercise at

Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The author administered the survey on the morning of 27

February in an auditorium with all 175 students present. After a brief introduction by the

CGSC UK liaison officer and the researcher, the students received surveys. All 175

students returned their surveys. Although the response rate was high, a 100 percent

survey response rate in this type of environment is not unusual.[134] Some of the participants exercised their right to refrain from answering any or all questions. One student answered only Question 1 and then wrote on the survey that he or she felt unqualified to participate in the study due to a break in service that began in 2005. Although it was not clear, it appears as though this officer completed his or her Captains level education prior to leaving the military in 2005 and therefore did not experience Stage 1 of the ROCC model.

With the exception of Questions 2a to 2c, all multiple choice questions resulted in response rates of at least 98 percent. Out of the three questions (2a to 2c), Question 2b, resulted in the lowest response rate at 83 percent. At the end of the survey, participants were provided the opportunity to comment on each of the three areas. Comment response rates for each area ranges from 77 percent to 90 percent. Overall survey, question, and comment response rates may indicate the participants generally understood the questions and wanted to provide their input on this topic.

<div align="center">Demographics</div>

Question 1 of the survey listed the various courses in the ROCC model that participants were expected to experience. The intent of this question was to qualify participants' perceptions of the ROCC model. The response rates to Question 1, shown in table 2, indicate that none of the ROCC model classes were attended by all 175

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[134]According to a recent book on survey research, ―Obviously one of the great strengths of group-administered surveys . . . is the high rate of response. Generally speaking, when students in classrooms . . . are asked to complete questionnaires, the rate of response is near 100%." Fowler, 75.

participants. The following paragraphs present an analysis of how the demographics

impact the research.

Table 2. Responses to Survey Question 1											
JOLP1	JOLP2	JOLP3	MK1	MK2	MK2a	MA1	MA2	MA3	JOTAC	JOTES	ET
100	96	100	94	165	70	163	164	163	59	118	81

Source: Created by author.

As explained in chapter 2, the JOLP modules are designed to be a continuous

process to improve junior officers' leadership abilities. JOLP 1 and 2 occur prior to

promotion to Captain. JOLP 3 is a DL course which requires attendance at an UK Army

Education Centre. Approximately 56 percent of the participants acknowledged

participation in the JOLP modules. JOLP's significance to the thesis is based on three of

its characteristics, which are: (1) They are modules in the ROCC Model's stage one;

(2) DL is the delivery method for JOLP 3; and (3) JOLP 3 requires chain of command

counseling. The low number of participants who acknowledge participation in the JOLP

modules may be attributed to a few different factors. These factors may include: (1) LE

officers were not required to attend JOLP, (2) the UK Army transitioned to the ROCC

model in 2004 which was the approximate time that most of the participants were

promoted to Captain, and (3) some participants identified that they ―did not know what

JOLP was."[135] In light of the low JOLP attendance rates and the study population's career timeline, the value of the collected data relating to JOLP is possibly low.

The three MK modules are DL delivered from any location on computers capable of processing the courseware and assessments. According to the ROCC model, UK Army Captains are required to complete three MK courses. The survey revealed that 94 percent of survey participants acknowledged completing MK2. This percentage indicates that all participants, minus LE officers, acknowledge completion of MK2. Only 53 percent of the participants acknowledged completing MK1. According to the OCDH, UK officers are required to complete MK1 prior to promotion to CPT (with the exception of LE officers).[136] The UK Army transitioned to the ROCC model in 2004 which was the approximate time that many of the participants were promoted to Captain, and therefore; were not required to complete MK1.

The low number of participants who acknowledge completion of MK2a is probably due to an error in the survey. During the survey development, the author was advised by a UK education officer to list both MK2 and MK2a on Question 1. However, a meeting with the UK Army's DLPO (after the survey was administered) indentified that MK2a is a term that has had various meanings in the history of the ROCC model and may have confused participants. In light of this revelation, the number of participants who acknowledge participation in MK2a is an irrelevant demographic statistic.

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[135]During the course of the participants' stay at Fort Leavenworth, the researcher had informal contact with several of them after the survey. The factors for low responses to attending JOLP presented in this sentence are largely a result of the informal contact with participants between 27 February and 11 March 2011.

[136]OCDH, 10B-1.

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Therefore, all MK2a specific data collected was not considered in the overall survey findings. In summary, the survey demographics reveal that at least 94 percent of the survey participants completed at least one of the DL-based MK modules. This high number of participants who completed MK classes indicates that based on MK classes alone, nearly all of the participants are qualified to share their experience with DL delivered courseware.

MA 1-3 are modules of instruction conducted in a face-to-face classroom setting at Army Education Centres. Each of the modules is four days in length. Officers are required to complete all three MA modules prior to promotion to Major, and 94 percent of the survey participants acknowledged completing the MA modules. The 6 percent of participants who did not acknowledge completion of the MA modules were likely LE officers who were not required to complete them. The high number of participants who acknowledge completion of the MA and MK modules indicate that based on these courses alone, nearly all of the participants are qualified to share their experience with modular based education.

JOTAC is a three week course designed to prepare junior officers for assignment in staff positions as a Captain. Only 34 percent of the participants acknowledged completion of JOTAC. JOTAC is a course required for promotion to Captain. Since the majority of the survey participants were either already eligible for promotion or already promoted Captain during the transition to the ROCC model, it is logical that few participants acknowledged completion of JOTAC. Conversely, twice as many participants completed the JOTES exam. The JOTES classes and exam are not a part of the ROCC model and were a requirement for promotion to Captain under the previous

model. According to the OCDH in 2005, officers following the JOTES path for promotion, could have completed JOTES up to April 2006.[137] Based on survey responses, all of the participants completed either the JOTES exam or JOTAC. Completion of either JOTES or JOTAC further indentifies the participants' educational experience as modular.

ET was the final ROCC programme of instruction listed in Question 1 of the survey. Officer attendance at an ET course is dependant upon an officer's arm of service in the UK Army. Most of the ET programmes are required prior to promotion to Captain. Only 46 percent of the participants indicated completion of an ET programme. This low percentage is likely due to the varied requirements among participants for ET completion. Compared to the MLC 2015 model, ET is comparable to branch specific education; however, many officers in the UK Army are not required to complete ET Programmes as a Captain. Based on the lack of a requirement, and the fact that it is not an aim of this thesis to compare branch or arm specific education between the MLC 2015 and ROCC models, the low number of participants who acknowledge completion of ET does not adversely affect participants' qualifications in this thesis.

In summary, the analysis of Question 1 reveals a number of results relating to the participants' demographics and qualifications to provide their perspectives of the ROCC model. Less than 57 percent of the participants acknowledged completion of the JOLP 1-3, MK1, MK2a, JOTAC, and ET modules or programmes. The low number of participants completing these courses can be directly attributed to their career timelines in relation to the UK Army's transitional period to the ROCC educational model.

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[137]United Kingdom Army, Army Code 64257, *Officer Career Development Handbook (OCDH),* September 2005, Issue 2.0, http://webarchive.nationalarchives .gov.uk/tna/+/http://www.mod.uk (accessed 28 October 2010), 42-3.

Conversely, Question 1's results indicate at least 93 percent of the participants completed at least one of the MK modules and all of the MA modules. This high participation rate in these DL and face-to-face modules coupled with the OCDH requirement for chain of command participation in their educational development indicates that nearly all of the participants are qualified to share their experiences with the ROCC model in regards to modularity, DL, and chain of command involvement.

<u>Civilian Education</u>

In the development of the survey, the author discovered a perception that UK Army officers may value civilian education less their peers in the US Army. Cognizant of this potential difference in culture, the survey included Questions 2a-2c to determine the importance of civilian education in the study population. Table 3 and table 4 reveal the participants' demographics and attitudes in relation to civilian education. Of those responses, 88 percent of the UK Majors earned a Bachelor's degree; 31 percent at least started work toward a post-graduate degree; and 25 percent earned a post-graduate degree. In comparison, the CGSC's ILE Class 11-01 civilian education rates were higher. According to ILE Class 11-01 student entrance records, 100 percent earned a Bachelor's degree; 58 percent have at least started work toward a post-graduate degree; and 46 percent earned a post-graduate degree.[138] The comparison of these numbers may validate the existing perception of a cultural difference between the UK and US Armies in regards

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[138]US Army, Command and General Staff College, US Student Division, ―CGSOC Class of 2011-01 Demographics: as of 8 August 2010,‖ Fort Leavenworth, KS.

to civilian education of its officers.[139] This potential difference in cultures is important to consider in the data analysis, findings, and recommendations, because a cultural difference between the two armies in their attitudes toward education may dilute the importance of the findings.

Table 3. Responses to Survey Questions 2a and 2b								
Question:	High School	Some Undergrad classes	Bachelor's Degree	Some Master's Classes	Master's Degree	Doctorate	No Answer	Total Responses
2a) Education Level Completed	3	15	92	10	39	0	16	159
2b) UK Army's Expectations	0	0	68	36	25	0	29	129

Source: Created by author.

Table 4. Responses to Survey Question 2c						
How important is civilian education to your military professional development?						
Very Important	Important	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	No Answer	Total Responses
37	75	21	32	4	6	175

Source: Created by author.

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[139]In questions 12a-c of the survey (despite their lack of relation to civilian education), several of the participants expressed their perceptions that the UK Army did not value civilian education due to a recent cancellation of a funded Master's Degree program.

Perceptions of the ROCC Model

Determining participants' perceptions of the ROCC Model was the primary intent of the survey. Questions 3a to 12c directly ask the participants' perceptions of the ROCC model. This section of chapter 4 presents the survey's data from Questions 3a-11b and their analysis as well as highlighting the major survey's findings. As applicable, this section also highlights themes of participants' comments for Questions 12a through 12c. This section is further divided into three areas that correspond directly to the three similarities between the ROCC model and MLC 2015, which are modularity, DL, and chain of command involvement. Overall, each of the questions, from 3a to 11b, resulted in a response rate of at least 98 percent. Assuming that there are no major undiscovered flaws in the survey, these high response rates indicate the data sufficiently represents the attitudes of the survey population.

Perceptions of Modular Education

Questions 3a-5b asked for participants' perceptions of their experience in a modular educational model. Questions 3a and 3b asked for participants' perceptions of how modularity affected lifelong learning.[140] Questions 4a and 4b asked for participants' perceptions of how modularity impacts the adaptability of courseware. Finally, Questions 5a and 5b asked for participants' perceptions on how well modularity met their educational needs.

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[140]Questions 3a and 3b were deliberately worded to reflect the characteristics of lifelong learning as presented by ALC 2015. This methodology also applies to Questions 6a, 6b, 9a, and 9b. ALC 2015, 14.

Table 5.   Modularity; Responses and Analysis for Survey Questions 3a to 5b
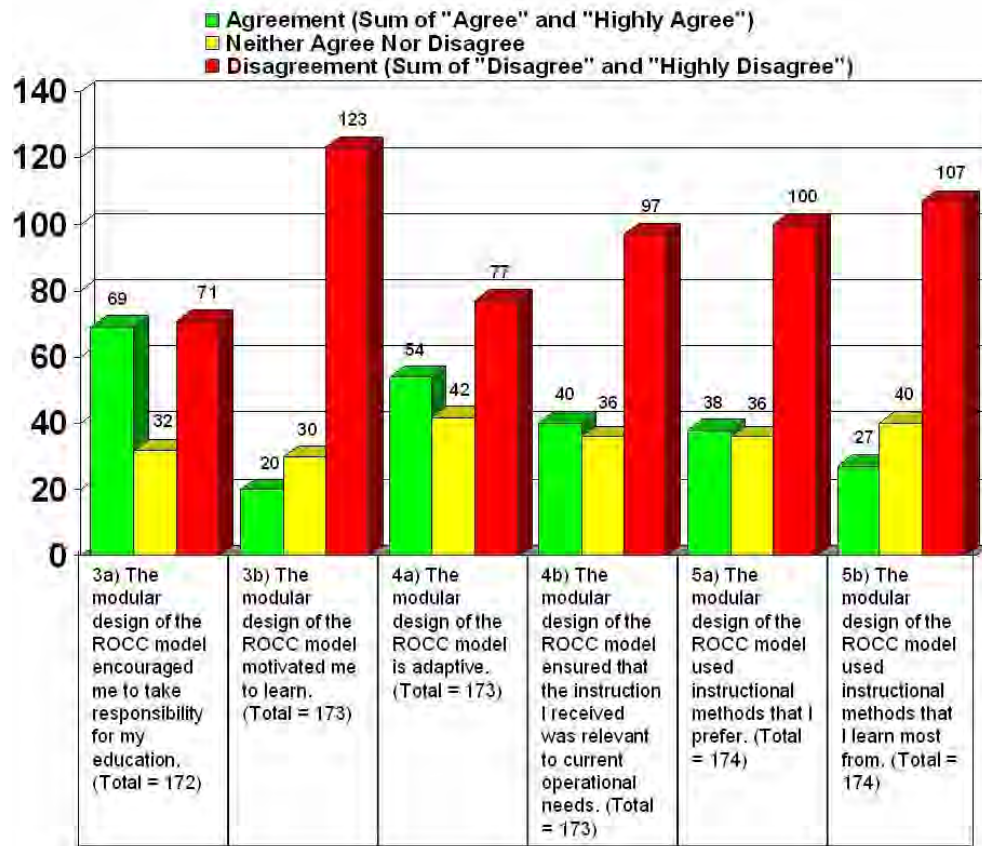
Source: Created by author.

According to the methodology established in chapter 3, the response totals in table 5 show that participants had negative attitudes or perceptions toward four of the six questions on modularity (3b, 4b, 5a, and 5b). Of particular note in regards to modularity, Question 3b received the highest number of negative responses in this section with 123. This high number of Disagreement reponses for Question 3b indicates that the modular nature of the ROCC model did not motivate learning and participants are closer in agreement to this question more than any other in this section. On the other hand, the response results for Questions 3a and 4a indicate that either the participants' perceptions

and attitudes toward these questions were neutral or further analysis is required in relation to these questions.

As evidenced by the neutral responses toward Questions 3a and 4a in comparison to the other four questions, student attitudes toward modularity were negative with the exception of its affects on students accepting responsibility for their education and course adaptability. Based on student comments to survey Question 12a, participants were generally not disappointed in modularity, but rather with certain aspects of the modules in the ROCC model. This attitude toward modularity is the first major finding from the survey. Responses with negative attitudes to Question 12a had three common themes. First, the operations tempo of their assignments and lack of support chain of command made it difficult to attend modules and therefore became a ―box ticking exercise." Second, the residential modules were too short and as a result, their content was shallow. Third, the timing of modules were related to promotional gates and not delivered when most needed. It is also important to note that the comments in Question 12a indicated that participants generally provided positive comments about the resident courses (MA 1-3, JOTAC, and ET) in the ROCC model. This contrasts with the generally negative responses about DL courses to Question 12a (MK 1-2 and JOLP 3). The negative attitude toward DL courses is echoed in the next section of this chapter. Since there were several negative comments about DL courses in Question 12a, and DL courses are an easily recognizable aspect of ROCC's modular nature, it is possible the attitudes toward DL courses negatively affected participant attitudes toward modularity. Further analysis may be required to validate participants' attitudes toward modularity.

Perceptions of Distance Learning

Questions 6a to 8b asked for participants' perceptions of their experiences with the ROCC model's DL modules. Questions 6a and 6b asked participants' perceptions of how DL delivered modules affected lifelong learning. Questions 7a and 7b asked for participants' perceptions of how DL delivered modules impact the adaptability of courseware. Finally, Questions 8a and 8b asked for participants' perceptions of how well DL delivered courseware met their educational needs.

Table 6. Distance Learning; Responses and Analysis for Survey Questions 6a to 8b
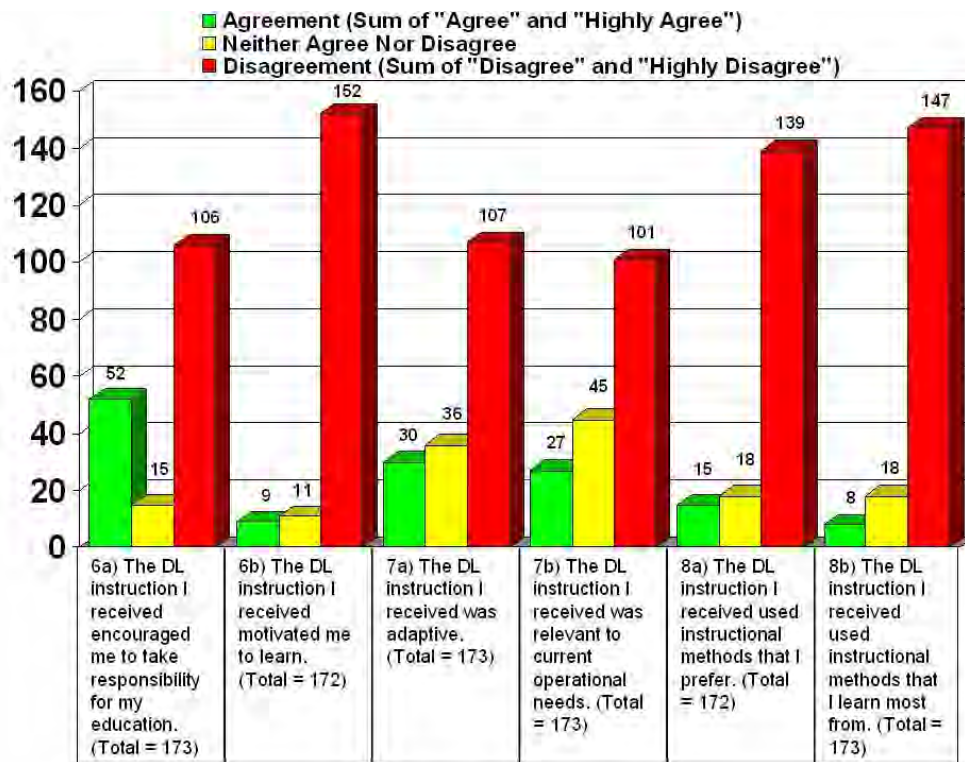
Source: Created by author.

More than half of the responses for each question about DL (6a to 8b) were in the Disagreement category. Therefore, according to the methodology established in chapter

3, participants had negative attitudes or perceptions about DL in every question. On this note, Questions 6b, 8a, and 8b received the highest Disagreement rates out of all questions on the survey. These three highest response rates indicate that participants were closer to agreement in their responses on these questions than any other on the survey. In addition, the responses to these three questions (6a, 8a, and 8b) indicate that participants felt that DL delivery methods in the ROCC model did not motivate them and were also the delivery method they prefer the least and learn the least from. Participants' belief that they learn the least from DL as a delivery method is the second major finding from the survey.

Based on student comments to Question 12b, there are five common reasons why participants had poor attitudes toward the ROCC model's DL modules. First, the operations tempo of participants' assignments and lack of support from their chain of command made it difficult to complete DL modules therefore they became a ―box ticking exercise‖ for promotion. Second, many participants were required to the complete MK modules on their own time away from work despite the OCDH's requirements to complete DL courses during work time. Third, assessments were unrealistic and did not effectively test students' learning. Fourth, students in MK courses only obtained a knowledge level of learning.[141] Fifth, several students experienced technical issues with the internet sites for DL courseware and assessments. Participants' belief that DL is an

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[141]According to Bloom's Taxonomy for Thinking, ―Knowledge‖ is the lowest level of learning. It is uncertain whether participants were referencing Bloom's model for learning; however in the context of their comments, the use of the term, ―knowledge,‖ likely has similar meaning. Headquarters, United States Army Training and Doctrine Command, TRADOC PAM 350-70-5, *Systems Approach To Training: Testing* (Fort Monroe, VA: Government Printing Office, 20 August 2004).

inadequate delivery method that did not motivate them was the third major finding from the survey.

As mentioned in chapter 2, it is important to note that the previous UK Army officer education studies identified similar attitudes toward DL in their study populations. The DLPO at the UK Army Defence Academy recently modified their process to improve and update MK courses. As a result, several improvements were recently made to the MK courses. The most recent surveys of Captains enrolled in MK modules indicate that UK Captains' perceptions of DL courses may change and therefore future study is required to determine those changes that made DL modules more successful.

Perceptions of Chain of Command Involvement

Questions 9a to 11b asked for participants' perceptions of their experiences with the chain of command involvement in their education. Questions 9a and 9b asked for participants' perceptions of how chain of command involvement affected lifelong learning. Questions 10a and 10b asked for participants' perceptions of how chain of command involvement impacted the adaptability of courseware. Finally, Questions 11a and 11b asked for participants' perceptions of how well chain of command involvement helps the ROCC model meet their professional and educational needs.

Table 7.   Chain of Command Involvement; Responses and Analysis for Survey
Questions 9a to 11b
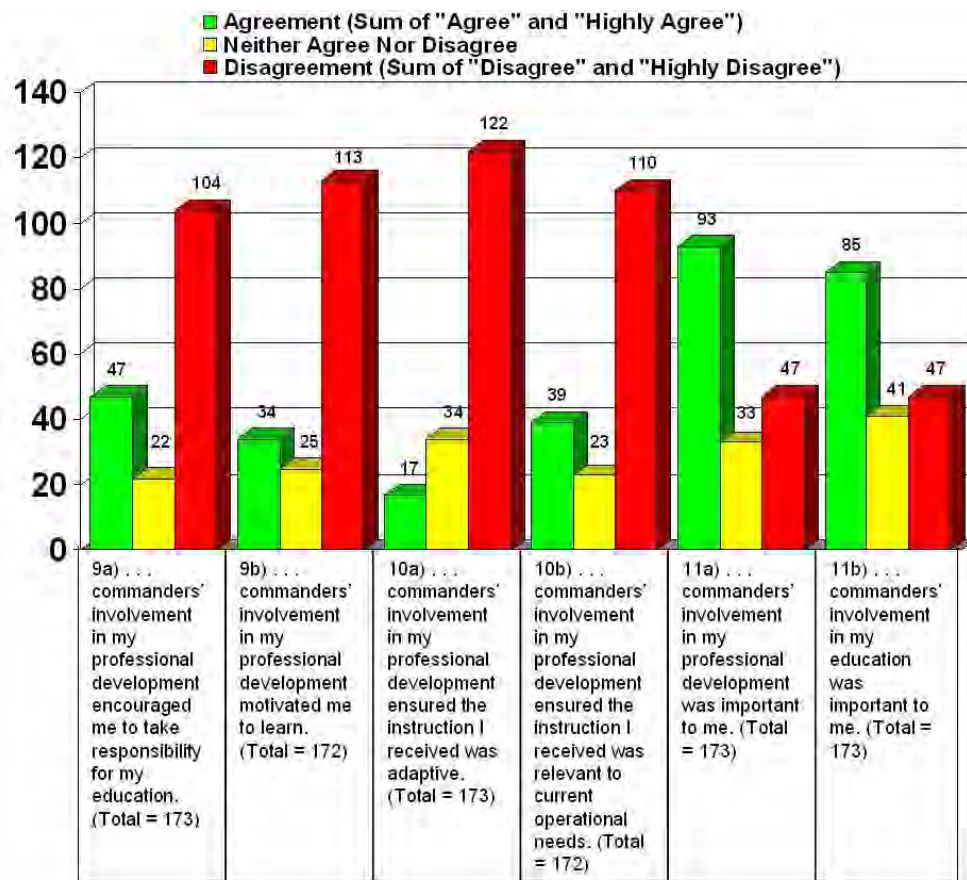
Source: Created by author.

As displayed in table 7, the response rates show that participants had negative

attitudes or perceptions toward their experiences with chain of command involvement in

four of the six questions (9a to 10b). These response rates indicate that participants'

experiences with chain of command involvement did not enhance their educational

experience in Stage 1 of the ROCC model. This attitude is reinforced by the participants'

comments to Question 12c; ―What would you like the MOD . . . to know about your

experiences with chain of command Involvement in education.‖ There appeared to be

three main themes from the negative comments on chain of command involvement. The three themes to Question 12c are: (1) Lack of ROCC experience-—The CoC are unaware of the requirements for Captains education in line with ROCC;" (2) Operations tempo-—Commanders have a plethora of responsibilities . . . each of these places a significant burden on the command to comply. This leaves little time for mentoring the student (who is also busy);" and (3) Unable-—They are not resourced to provide assistance."[142] This lack of chain of command support for Captains education is the fourth major finding of the survey.

Conversely, the responses in the Agreement category to Questions 11a and 11b were the highest for this category in the survey. These high levels of Agreement responses indicate that Captains value chain of command involvement, which is the fifth and final major finding of the survey. There are other interesting aspects that table 7 reveals about chain of command involvement. For instance, five of the six questions (9a, 9b, 10b, 11a, and 11b) had less —Neither Agree nor Disagree" responses than the other two categories, which may indicate participants' perceptions of chain of command involvement varied more than the other two survey areas (modularity and DL). This variation of perceptions is supported by participant comments to Question 12c. Although a minority, a number of participants described positive examples of chain of command involvement which aided their educational experience. On another note, Question 10a had the highest number of responses in the Disagreement category of all questions about chain of command involvement. The number of Disagreement responses to Question 10a

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[142]All three quotations in this sentence were from participant comments to Question 12c.

is not surprising since it is highly unlikely that a participant's chain of command would have the ability to affect the adaptability of ROCC model courseware.

Summary of Findings on Modularity, DL, and Chain of Command Involvement

This chapter presented the survey's data and a brief analysis of participants' perceptions of the ROCC model in the three areas identified as similar to the MLC 2015. According to the methodology presented in chapter 3, out of the 18 questions that asked their perceptions of the ROCC model, response rates for 14 questions identified areas that participants generally had negative perceptions or attitudes. In addition, the response rates of two questions indicate neutral attitudes or areas that require further research. The response rates of the final two questions indicate areas that participants had positive perceptions or attitudes. Based on chapter 4's analysis of participant responses, the following are the five major findings from the survey:

1. Participants felt unsure about modular education in general but were disappointed in certain aspects of the modular ROCC model which included: DL courseware and assessments, lack of chain of command involvement, and lack of support for education within the operational force.

2. DL is the delivery method participants felt they learned the least from.

3. Participants felt that the ROCC model DL courses were inadequate and did not motivate them.

4. The chain of command either did not support educational requirements or they were unable or not resourced to assist.

5. Participants believed that chain of command involvement is important to their

education and development.

<u>Conclusions</u>

This chapter presented the results of the study's survey instrument administered to 175 UK Army Majors on 27 February 2011. The demographics of the respondents indicate that at least 93 percent of the participants experienced a Captains education model that was modular, contained DL courseware, and required chain of command involvement. All of these participants were therefore qualified to contribute their perceptions on the areas of the ROCC model as they relate to the MLC 2015 model. The next section of this chapter compared levels of civilian degree completion between the participants and their peers in the US Army. This comparison may validate the existing perceptions of a cultural difference between the UK and US Armies in regards to civilian education of its officers. Lastly, this chapter presented an analysis of the participants' attitudes toward the ROCC model and summarized the findings of the survey. In general, participants' attitudes or perceptions were negative for 78 percent of the questions on the survey, neutral attitudes or perceptions for 11 percent of the questions, and positive attitudes or perceptions for 11 percent of the questions. The survey analysis resulted in five major findings. The next and final chapter presents the study's conclusions and recommendations based on the analysis of this chapter.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is easier to change the location of a cemetery, than to change the school curriculum.

— President Woodrow T. Wilson

The Army requires the capability to resource the lifelong learning model in both resident and nonresident delivery methods to support senior mission commanders' training and education requirements and Soldier quality of life.

— TRADOC PAM 525-8-2
The US Army Learning Concept for 2015

Introduction and Summary of Analysis

The first epigraph above was a quote from President Woodrow Wilson, the

United States' 28th President, which highlights the difficulties associated with making

changes to an educational model that serves thousands of students governed by a large

bureaucratic organization. In the same spirit, ALC 2015 presented SALT with a complex

and important problem: how to update the US Army's Captains level education by

making it modular, include DL courses, and involve Captains' chain of command? In

addition, ALC 2015 requires this new model, known as MLC 2015, to promote lifelong

learning, utilize adaptive courseware, and meet the educational needs of Captains.

The purpose of this thesis was to answer the research question, ―Based on the UK

Army's experience with Captains education since 2004, what lessons learned will assist

SALT in its development and implementation of TRADOC's new educational model for

US Army Captains?‖ Chapter 2 of this thesis compared the current CCC model, the

future MLC 2015 model, and Stage 1 of the UK Army's ROCC model. In this

comparison, MLC 2015 and the ROCC model have three common characteristics. These

common characteristics are their modular structure, the use of DL as a delivery method for some of their modules, and involving Captains' operational chains of command in their educational development. Chapter 2 also reviewed relevant educational and military literature to develop an understanding of these three characteristics. In addition, chapter 2 also reviewed prior studies of the ROCC model. Chapter 3 of this thesis presented a research methodology that included the use of a survey instrument, which the author administered to 175 UK Majors who have experience with Captains education within the ROCC model. Chapter 4 presented the participants' attitudes of the ROCC model and analyzed the results to develop findings.

This chapter answers the research question, makes recommendations for SALT, Branch Commandants, CAC, and TRADOC to consider in the development of MLC 2015, and concludes the thesis. To directly answer the research question, the analysis of the survey results from chapter 4 led to five major research findings:

1. Participants felt unsure about modular education in general but were disappointed in certain aspects of the modular ROCC model which included: DL courseware and assessments, lack of chain of command involvement, and lack of support for education within the operational force.

2. DL is the delivery method participants felt they learned the least from.

3. Participants felt that the ROCC model DL courses were inadequate and did not motivate them.

4. The chain of command either did not support educational requirements or they were unable or not resourced to assist.

5. Participants believed that chain of command involvement is important to their

education and development.

<u>Recommendations</u>

The thesis statement of this study is: ─Before implementing a new Captains

education model, the US Army should consider the lessons the UK Army learned from its

ROCC model experience, especially in the areas of modularity, DL, and chain of

command involvement." Based on the major lessons learned, this thesis has nine

recommendations for the US Army to consider, which are organized into three categories

(modularity, DL, and chain of command involvement).

<u>Recommendations for Modularity</u>

<u>Transition to DL Classes</u>

In the wake of the DTR and ROCC reports, the Defence Academy began the

process to transform Captains education through development of DL based MK modules.

Without experience in DL courseware development in 2001-2002, MK developers

created DL products through direct transfer from existing material designed for

residential instruction. By 2003, the Defence Academy fielded the MK courses to UK

Army Captains, and it was apparent their process was ineffective.[143] Although current

MK products are an improvement from its initial release in 2003, the early methods of

development may have delayed delivery of a quality product.

Based on the UK Army's lessons learned from MK courseware development,

SALT and Branch Commandants should ensure that DL product developers and course

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[143]Potts, ─20090525 MK1 Timeline."

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designers are not directly transitioning resident classes into DL classes. Instead, SALT and Branch Commandants should conduct a thorough educational analysis to determine requirements and learning objectives. As the US Army transitions to a modular educational model, new DL courses should be based on this analysis and synchronized with the new CCC resident courses.

<u>Review and Update Process</u>

ALC 2015 recognizes the need for a program that sustains education modules to ensure they stay relevant and of high quality.[144] Prior to implementation of any Captains level modular course (resident or DL), SALT and Branch Commandants should ensure there is a thorough enduring process in place to sustain courseware and material. This process must include enduring contracts, funding, and assigned personnel to support a continuous and effective review and update process. SALT should coordinate with the UK Defence Academy's DLPO to adopt review and update processes or practices that can assist with US Captains education modules.

<u>Time to Study</u>

MLC 2015 expects First Lieutenants and Captains to complete 10 hours of DL courseware per month.[145] ALC 2015 introduces TDE status to protect Captains' time as they attend the courses on their installation, but does not specify guidance for DL.[146] Therefore, neither the MLC 2015 nor the ALC 2015 envisions setting time aside during

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[144]ALC 2015, 21, 28.

[145]MLC 2015, 8.

[146]ALC 2015, 27-28.

the work day for officers to complete their required DL modules. The OCDH states ─MK1 study should be undertaken as part of an officer's normal working day."[147] However, many survey participants stated that the OCDH neither defines a ─normal working day" nor uses a forcing mechanism to support their studies. Participants also cited that their units' operations tempo was too high and therefore many completed DL courseware on their own personal time.

Although this thesis identified some possible differences in the UK and US Army cultures, it is possible that US officers will similarly dislike education requirements outside of the duty day. Participants in the CAC Commander's blog (identified in chapter 1) echoed their dislike toward using personal time for required professional education. Although the blog was not a scientifically designed survey, US Army First Lieutenants and Captains may also dislike requirements to complete education during personal time. Forcing measures must be in place to ensure units provide Captains the opportunity to study free of distraction during the duty day.

<div align="center">Recommendations for DL</div>

Interactive and Collaborative DL

Study participants commonly complained that DL is inferior to resident instruction. They explained that MK modules are inferior because they do not have the ability to collaborate with peers or dialogue with an instructor. ALC 2015 recognizes the importance of collaboration in DL courses.[148] SALT and Branch Commandants should

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[147]OCDH, 14-2.

[148]ALC 2015, 27, 58.

ensure that all DL courses include an assigned instructor and the ability to collaborate amongst students (especially in classes where the objectives are above the knowledge level). In addition, DL course should not only allow collaboration, but instructors need training to facilitate collaboration in a DL environment, and students may need training to effectively study and collaborate in a DL environment.

Frequent DL Courseware Update

According to the survey results, participants were disappointed in the quality of DL courseware, its delivery, and its assessments. Previous studies in 2006 and 2009 indicated that DL modules disappointed UK Army Captains for nearly the same reasons. DLPO recently created a comprehensive semi-annual review and update process that did not previously exist. This new process identified that there are hundreds (if not thousands) of required DL courseware updates DL needed every year.

The 2010 CCC Study identified the importance of both high quality instructors and courseware. DL is typically more reliant on courseware and less on interaction with instructors and other students. Although ALC 2015 directs increased collaboration in DL courses, it will not meet the levels of contact and collaboration in a resident course. Based on DL coursewares' decrease in interaction with instructor and peers (compared to resident instruction), it is even more important that DL courseware is of the highest quality.[149]

According to ALC 2015, ―The Army requires the capability to assess DL products routinely through automated data collection and sharing processes to maintain standards

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[149]Bickley et al., 50-51.

and update learning content."[150] SALT should develop a routine process to update DL

modules similar to the model recently implemented by DLPO. This process should

include; student feedback, course developers, course content subject matter experts,

certified educators, course managers, IT programmers, and approval from the established

military body of governance. DLPO uses an effective semi-annual timeline; and

therefore, SALT should adopt a similar timeline. CAC and TRADOC should ensure that

DL courseware is not implemented until a review and update process is in place and

properly resourced.

<u>Periodic DL User Acceptance and Preference Studies</u>

ALC 2015 states that both technology and officers' educational needs adapt over

time; therefore, educational models and delivery methods must adapt at the same rate.[151]

SALT and Branch Commandants need to conduct annual studies and DL course exit

surveys to determine the delivery approaches that meet the learning needs of Captains

and therefore maximize their learning.

<div align="center">

Recommendations for Chain
of Command Involvement
</div>

According to the results of the survey and previous studies of the ROCC model,

quality chain of command involvement is crucial to the success of a modular educational

model. The Army Leader Development Strategy published in 2009, underscored the

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[150]ALC 2015, 58.

[151]Ibid., 28.

importance of synergizing the efforts between students, leaders, and the institution.

According to this strategy, the Army should:

> Encourage an equal commitment by the institution, by leaders, and by individual members of the profession to life-long learning and development. The Army, as a learning organization, will create and resource the capability for life-long learning and the policies to support it. Leaders will match the commitment by establishing a climate that values life-long learning and holds subordinates responsible for achieving their leader development objectives. Individuals will demonstrate commitment by establishing and achieving their individual leader development objectives. [152]

In light of the Army Leader Development Strategy, the research findings, and applicable

educational models, there are three recommendations for chain of command involvement

in US Army Captains education.

Educate Leaders During Transition Period

Currently, the US Army's leaders do not have formal requirements to participate

in Captains education. Implementing MLC 2015 requires the Army as an organization to

change leaders' formal relationships with their Captains. William Bridges, an

organizational change expert introduced in chapter 2, stated that the problem ―isn't the

changes . . . it's the transitions."[153] Bridges believes that organizations affect change by

implementing new policy, rearranging personnel, or other organizational mechanics;

however, transition requires the organizations' acceptance, psychologically.

In a similar fashion, John Kotter, the other organizational change expert

introduced in chapter 2, states that it is essential to establish a sense of urgency within the

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[152]US Army Center for Army Leadership, ―A Leader Development Strategy for a 21st Century Army," Fort Leavenworth, KS, 25 November 2009, 10.

[153]Bridges, 3.

organization in order for change to succeed. Kotter believes that change managers must convince at least 75 percent of an organization's leaders that change is urgent. He states that ―anything less can produce very serious problems later on in the process."[154] In light of the current attitudes toward possible changes in Captains education and the lessons from the UK's ROCC model experience, the US Army needs to convince its organizational leaders that there is an urgent need to implement MLC 2015 and their participation is crucial to its success. TRADOC and US Army Forces Command should engage in active strategic communications concerning MLC 2015's implementation and its urgency. Bridges and Kotter both agree that a communications plan should focus heavily on the problem, not just the solution.[155]

The transition plan should be communicated in professional journals, blogs, in battalion and brigade Pre Command Courses, during TRADOC commander visits (as well as other senior Army leaders), and in public statements from the Chief of Staff of the Army. The communication plan should be continuous. As Bridges explains, leaders of change should ―give people information, and do it again and again."[156] TRADOC and US Army Forces Command should monitor the attitudes of organizational leaders through surveys and blogs, and adjust its communications plan accordingly.

Regardless of the level of chain of command support, the transition period will take years to fully mature. It will also take several years until the Army possesses leaders with who complete MLC 2015, and therefore are in a position to mentor and assist their

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[154]Kotter, ―Leading Change," *HBR,* 4.

[155]Ibid., 3; Bridges, 16.

[156] Bridges, 32.

Captains based on experience. During the transition, SALT, CAC, and TRADOC must continually educate leaders on their role in MLC 2015 and provide them with ready made solutions, products, and a helpline to assist them.

Ensure Chain of Command Supports MLC 2015 Program

Possibly, not all of the chains of command in the US Army will support MLC 2015 and adhere to their defined role in Captains education. The US Army should implement a forcing mechanism to ensure chains of command are properly assessing the needs of their Captains and properly supporting their DL education through mentorship and preparation. Forcing mechanisms may include proctors for exams, digital signatures on a student's ACT profile, educational counseling forms signed by their chain of command and submitted to their ACT, and acknowledgement of completed education on their Officer Evaluation Reports.

Establish Periodic Surveys to Solicit Input
from Operational Commanders

Study participants recognized that modular based DL education requires chain of command involvement. As the US Army transitions to a model with similar characteristics, it will need to find ways to involve operational commanders more in education. SALT and Branch Commandants should develop a periodic survey for battalion and brigade level commanders to determine the Army's changing needs for Captains education. The results of this survey should drive future adjustments to Captains learning objectives and therefore modular courseware as necessary. If the results of commanders' input are communicated back to commander, this feedback will increase their interest, involvement, and ownership in Captains education.

Conclusion

In chapter 1, this thesis identified a problem. SALT is developing a new educational model, known as MLC 2015, for US Army Captains. However, SALT does not have a US Army active duty model to refer to while developing and implementing the new model. Despite the UK Army's use of a similar Captains education model for the past seven years, there is no formal relationship or process to identify and provide UK lessons learned to SALT that could assist in development of this new educational model.

In light of this problem, the thesis created a unique survey to identify UK officers' perceptions of their experience with an educational model that is similar to MLC 2015. The findings, conclusions, and recommendations are designed to assist SALT in MLC 2015's development and implementation. Although this thesis identifies findings significant to Stage 1 of the UK Army's ROCC model and shares them with the UK Defence Academy and the UK Directorate of Training (Army), it does not make direct recommendations for improvement to the UK Army. As identified earlier, the UK Army is fully aware of their challenges with Stage 1 of the ROCC model and has the experience, governance, and processes in place to address these findings.

Unlike the UK Army, SALT does not have the benefit of experience with this type of educational model nor does it currently have enduring processes in place to identify issues and adjust accordingly. The findings and recommendations in this thesis are based on seven years of lessons learned in the UK Army. If the history of the implementation of ROCC model is an indication of the challenges MLC 2015 may face, then SALT, CAC, TRADOC, and the leaders in the operational force of the US Army will have an uphill battle, and they must create a unity of effort to ensure MLC 2015

succeeds. If the blogs and online polls indicate current attitudes in the US Army, then all leaders must overcome its cultural roadblocks. SALT and Branch Commandants also need to ensure that Captains educational products are fully developed, tested, and have the support structure necessary to succeed prior to implementation. Educational products that do not meet these criteria will support the negative perceptions of the new model that already exist in the US Army.

In 2002, the UK Army's ROCC Report warned that ―we must resource [the model] from the very outset. If we fail to do so, we risk a generation of disillusioned officers." [157] The US Army, and specifically TRADOC, CAC, and SALT, faces a similar, if not the same, challenge today. By leveraging the lessons learned from the UK Army's experiences with its officers, the US Army can significantly mitigate this risk. Utilizing the technical advances since 2002 and ensuring chain of command involvement, the US Army has the opportunity to implement a successful, DL based, tailorable, and modular education model for its mid-grade officers for the first time.

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[157]Potts, ―20090525 MK1 Timeline."

APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

UK Army Major's experience with the ROCC Model
CGSC APPROVED SURVEY SCN: 11-02-057, 16 February 2011

UK Army Major's experience with the ROCC Model -
CGSC APPROVED SURVEY SCN: 11-02-057 16 February 2011

Invitation to Participate:
UK Army Majors participating in the February 2011 Eagle Owl Exercise are invited to participate in a research project by completing the attached survey. Participation is voluntary. Participants may refrain from answering specific questions, and may withdraw entirely from the research project at any time.

Research Purpose:
The purpose of the research is to determine Exercise Eagle Owl participants' perceptions of the UK Army's Captain level education. There may not be a direct benefit for survey participants; however, this research may help improve U.S. and UK Armies' Captain level education.

Confidentiality:
The original copies obtained from this survey and any identifying information will remain with the researcher at all times and are not shared with the U.S. Army, UK Army, or any other third party. The researcher will publish and provide aggregate survey data (without participants' identifying information) to the U.S. and UK Armies.

Identified Risks:
Potentially, participants may observe each other's answers and therefore compromise anonymity. To reduce the risk of losing anonymity, participants should safeguard their answers while completing the survey. Loss of anonymity may alter participants' professional standing among peers, instructors, or supervisors.

Participant instructions:
If you elect to participate, please complete the attached survey by following the enclosed instructions. Once complete, participants should insert the survey into the provided envelope and place in the identified collection box. Alternatively, participants may also return the survey to the researcher's mailbox outside classroom 4131 in the Lewis and Clark building no later than March 11th, 2011. It is estimated that this survey will require 10-15 minutes to complete. Participants are not required to provide any personal identification on the surveys; however, they may provide their name where applicable.

Contact the researcher:
Participants who desire further information on this survey or its results should contact the researcher (Major Peter Sittenauer) by sending an email to peter.sittenauer@us.army.mil

1) Select all courses, modules, and programmes of instruction you completed. Mark all corresponding boxes that apply with an "X" to indicate completion.

JOLP 1	
JOLP 2	
JOLP 3	
MK 1	
MK 2	
MK 2a	
MA 1	
MA 2	
MA 3	
JOTAC	
JOTES	
Arm Required / Branch Specific Captain Level Employment Training (ET)	

2a) Circle the level of civilian education that you have completed.

Some Undergraduate Level Classes

Bachelor's Degree

Some Master's Level Classes

Master's Degree or equivalent

Doctorate Level Degree

2b) Circle the level of civilian education that you feel your Army expects you to complete at this point in your career.

Bachelor's Degree

Some Master's Level Classes

Master's Degree or equivalent

Doctorate Level Degree

For Questions 2c through 11b, answer each question by circling the most applicable response on the scale.

2c) How important is civilian education to your military professional development.

Very Important	Important	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Unimportant	Very Unimportant

Modular Education
The ROCC educational model described by the Officer Career Developmental Handbook (OCDH), is *modular* for Army Captains. This means that, rather than attending a single Captains Course all at one time, learning objectives for Captains are achieved through several modules at various times in an officer's career (for example, MK1, MA, JOTAC, etc.).

3a) The modular design of the ROCC model encouraged me to take responsibility for my education.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

3b) The modular design of the ROCC model motivated me to learn.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

4a) The modular design of the ROCC model is adaptive.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

4b) The modular design of the ROCC model ensured that the instruction I received was relevant to current operational needs.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

5a) The modular design of the ROCC model used instructional methods that I prefer.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

5b) The modular design of the ROCC model used instructional methods that I learn most from.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

Distance Learning (DL)
The ROCC educational model delivers some of its instruction through distance learning (DL). According to the OCDH, **DL** is "Structured learning that takes place without the physical presence of the instructor. This definition includes correspondence courses, satellite broadcasts, videotape and computer-based instruction or any combination thereof."

6a) The DL instruction I received encouraged me to take responsibility for my education.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

6b) The DL instruction I received motivated me to learn.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

7a) The DL instruction I received was adaptive.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

7b) The DL instruction I received was relevant to current operational needs.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

8a) The DL instruction I received used instructional methods that I prefer.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

8b) The DL instruction I received used instructional methods that I learn most from.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

Chain of Command / Unit involvement

The OCDH identifies that Commanders are responsible to counsel and mentor their officers to further their professional development. For example, JOLP 2 requires regimental duty commanders to provide constructive feedback and mentoring to young officers between their commissioning course and attendance at JOLP 3. In addition, regimental duty commanders are required to assign mentors to officers enrolled in MK1 and MK2.

9a) In my regimental duty assignments, commanders' involvement in my professional development encouraged me to take responsibility for my education.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

9b) In my regimental duty assignments, commanders' involvement in my professional development motivated me to learn.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

10a) In my regimental duty assignments, commanders' involvement in my professional development ensured the instruction I received was adaptive.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

10b) In my regimental duty assignments, commanders' involvement in my professional development ensured the instruction I received was relevant to current operational needs.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

11a) During my regimental duty assignments, commanders' involvement in my professional development was important to me.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

11b) During my regimental duty assignments, commanders' involvement in my education was important to me.

Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree

Comments: What would you like the MoD Directorate of Training (Army) and the researcher to know about your experiences with:

12a) Modular Education:

12b) Distance Learning:

12c) Chain of Command Involvement in education:

APPENDIX B

CONSOLIDATED TABLES

Table 1. Developing Questions 3a-11b			
	Model Similarities		
ALC 2015 Objective	Modularity	DL	Chain of Command Involvement
Lifelong Learning	3a, 3b	6a, 6b	9a, 9b
Adaptive model and Courseware	4a, 4b	7a, 7b	10a, 10b
Meeting educational needs of Captains	5a, 5b	8a, 8b	11a, 11b

Source: Created by author.

Question 1) Select all courses modules, and programmes of instruction you completed.[158]

Table 2. Responses to Survey Question 1											
JOLP1	JOLP2	JOLP3	MK1	MK2	MK2a	MA1	MA2	MA3	JOTAC	JOTES	ET
100	96	100	94	165	70	163	164	163	59	118	81

Source: Created by author.

[158]Acronyms of this table are presented here, however, for an explanation of each course, see chapter 2 and 3. JOLP=Junior Officer Leadership Programme, MK=Military Knowledge, MA=Military Analysis, JOTAC=Junior Officers Tactics Course, JOTES=Junior Officers' Training and Education Scheme, and ET=Employment Training.

Question 2a) Circle the level of civilian education that you have completed.
Question 2b) Circle the level of civilian education that you feel your Army expects you to complete at this point in your career.

Table 3. Responses to Survey Questions 2a and 2b								
Question:	High School	Some Undergrad classes	Bachelor's Degree	Some Master's Classes	Master's Degree	Doctorate	No Answer	Total Responses
2a) Education Level Completed	3	15	92	10	39	0	16	159
2b) UK Army's Expectations	0	0	68	36	25	0	29	129

Source: Created by author.

Table 4. Responses to Survey Question 2c						
How important is civilian education to your military professional development?						
Very Important	Important	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Unimportant	Very Unimportant	No Answer	Total Responses
37	75	21	32	4	6	175

Source: Created by author.

Table 5.   Modularity; Responses and Analysis for Survey Questions 3a to 5b
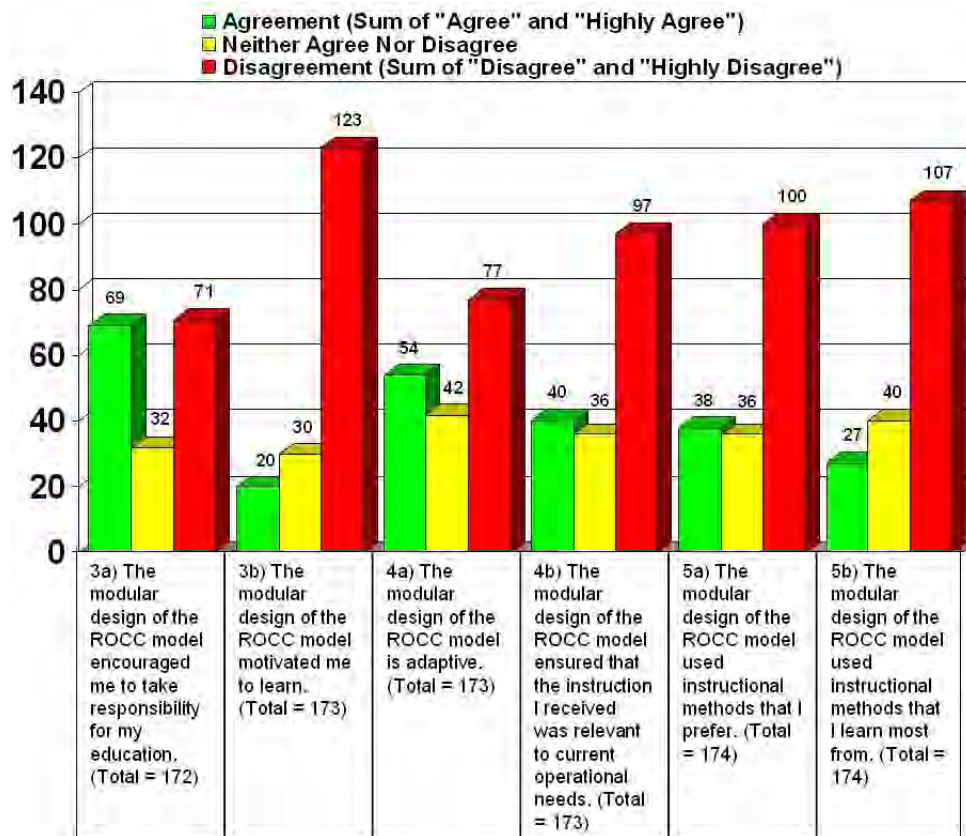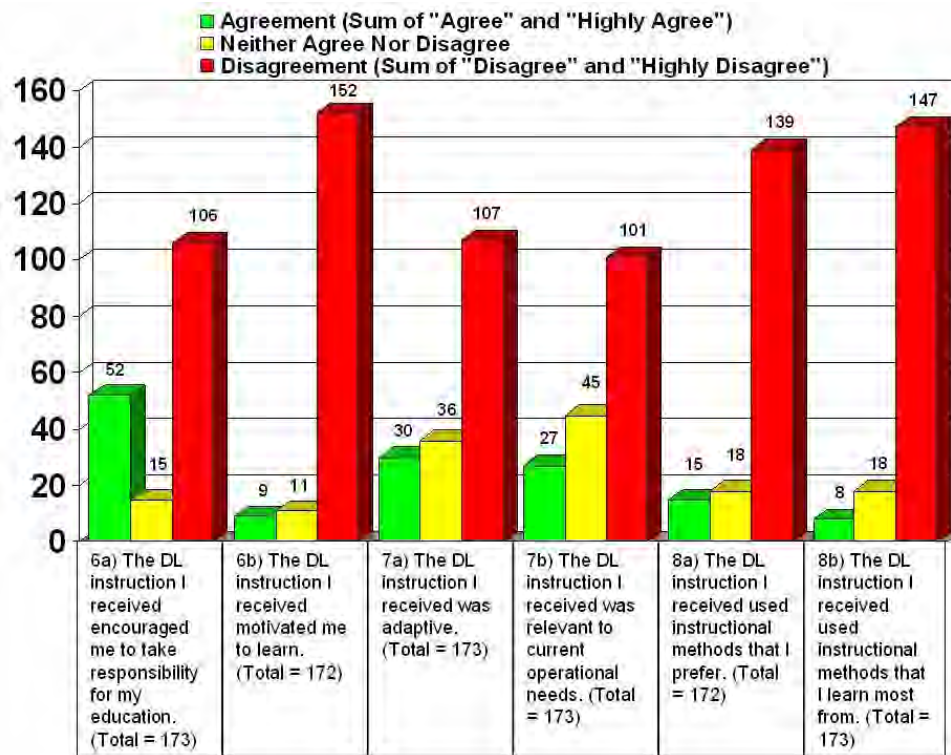

Source: Created by author.

Note: Below are the complete response values for questions 3a to 5b that support Table 5.

Question	Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree
3a)	6	63	32	57	14
3b)	1	19	30	104	19
4a)	0	54	42	67	10
4b)	0	40	36	76	21
5a)	0	38	36	61	39
5b)	1	26	40	70	37

Table 6.   Distance Learning; Responses and Analysis for Survey Questions 6a to 8b

Source: Created by author.
Note: Below are the complete response values for questions 6a to 8b that support Table 6.

Question	Highly Disagree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree
6a)	5	47	15	68	38
6b)	0	9	11	90	62
7a)	0	30	36	74	33
7b)	1	26	45	69	32
8a)	2	13	18	70	69
8b)	0	8	18	74	73

Table 7.   Chain of Command Involvement; Responses and Analysis for Survey
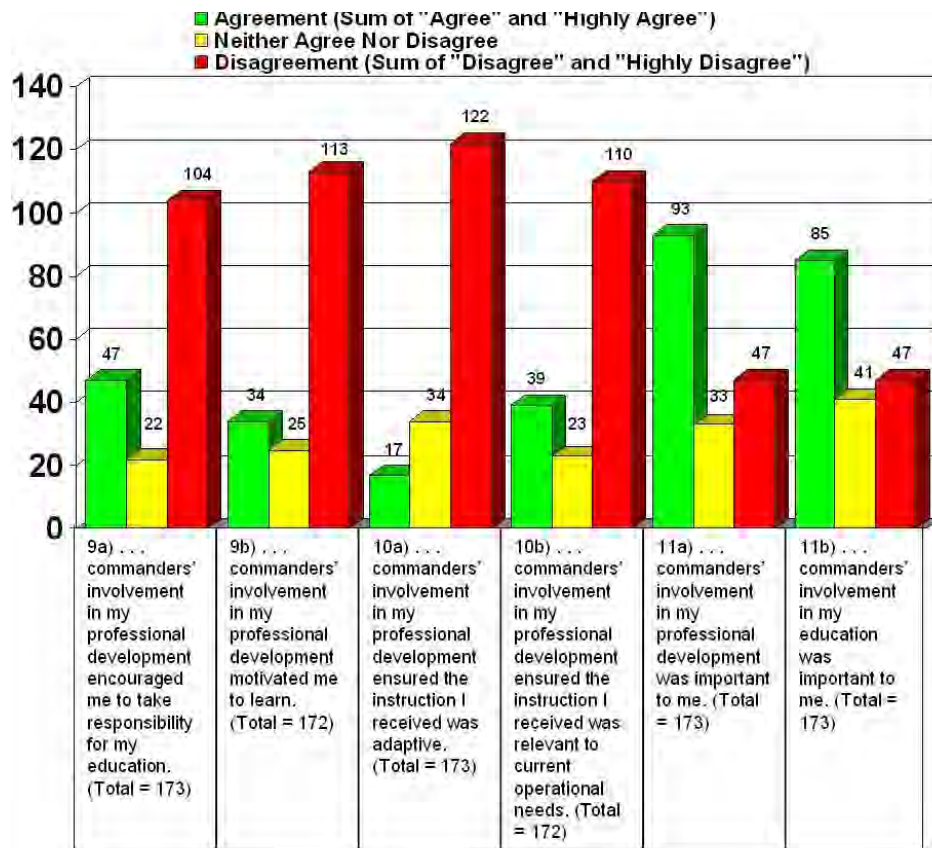Questions 9a to 11b

Source: Created by author.
Note: Below are the complete response values for questions 6a to 8b that support Table 6.

Question	Highly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Highly Disagree
9a)	2	45	22	67	37
9b)	0	34	25	74	39
10a)	1	16	34	87	35
10b)	3	36	23	82	28
11a)	15	78	33	30	17
11b)	11	74	41	32	15

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